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New Objectives for the Social Studies

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We need new objectives. We need objectives which challenge us to meet the needs of our students in an increasingly complicated civilization. We need objectives which are fundamental and practical. We must be able to agree upon them; we must be able to teach for them right in our own classrooms; and we must be able to test their achievement.

The primary aim of any social studies program for the pupil should be the better understanding of social living. By social living is meant living with other people. The child is in school perhaps twelve years, and at the end of that time he has begun to understand one tiny factor in this complex society: himself. But society is intangible, tremendous, and complicated. It takes experience and background even to begin to understand it.

The New Objectives. In formulating objectives, the school can ignore the obvious, and attempt the impossible: an explanation of society. Or it can break the social studies up into separate academic subjects and teach the facts as such, hoping that the pupil will eventually relate them back into their proper perspective. Or it can set up new objectives in which it will:

1. Attempt to show the pupil that society is complex.
2. Inspire him with the desire to understand it.
3. Give him, through a study of history, the necessary background for understanding it.

4. Try to teach him the skills necessary for a study of history.
5. Attempt to establish the necessary attitudes of a successful social studies student.
6. Show him that history is made up of patterns, that it is an orderly record in which cause leads to effect.
7. Inculcate in him the attitudes which a believer in, and a citizen of, a democracy must have.

The program should build for future study. It should not kill the child's interest in history by dealing with material and concepts beyond the child's grasp, nor should the child, when he has completed the program, feel that he has "passed" it or put the study of history behind him. He should be made to feel that history is not a school subject but a vital part of his everyday life. He cannot hope to know or understand much history when he graduates from high school, but he can hope to have a deep and sincere desire to know and understand it as he grows older.

The practical social studies program should have as its end-in-view a *beginning*. Students should not lose interest in history or feel that they know and understand much of it while they are in school. They should, on the other hand, be filled with the resolve to make the study of history and the understanding of society a life-time responsibility.

In order to set up objectives, it is necessary first to break each one up into teachable parts. They must be acquired by the student in a natural, normal way.

Two things should be kept in mind about the objectives listed above. First, they are the objectives of *any* program, whether it prepares for college entrance examinations, or for Life with a capital L. In the second place, they are the objectives of the whole twelve years of social studies in school. The duty of the teacher at each grade level is to see that his students are making the necessary progress toward acquiring those skills and attitudes which he should have by the end of his senior year in high school.

What follows is a suggestion, not for personal methods, but for a long term, workable system which would (or should) underlie the infinite variety of teaching techniques.

Show the Student That Society is Complex. As for the first objective, it is important to show the student that society *is* complex. Most of us tend to be provincial. We grow up to believe that all normal people are the same as we are. We tend to believe that our social and economic class is the normal one and that other classes are peculiar. This objective might be broken down into teachable parts as follows:

1. Society is composed of many people living together.
2. Ideally, people should get along well with one another.
3. It is difficult to live always at peace with people.
4. There are many religious customs which clash.
5. There are many economic ideas which clash.
6. There are many political ways of life which clash.
7. Most people want to be happy.
8. Some people want more of material things than they have.
9. Some people are jealous of those who have more than they have.
10. There are class distinctions based on wealth.
11. There are class distinctions based on education.
12. There are class distinctions based on heritage and family.
13. Most people want to do what is right for all.
14. Some people are utterly selfish.
15. People are influenced by their heredity and by their environment.
16. Well-educated people in comfortable economic circumstances are in the minority.
17. There are many different languages spoken.

18. Most people distrust what they don't understand.
19. Most people do not understand people of other lands, languages and economic and political ways of life.
20. Understanding is essential to cooperation.
21. Cooperation is essential to compromise.
22. Compromise is essential to getting along well.

This is just a suggested list of the component parts into which the concept that society is complex could be divided. Any social studies teacher can see how a list with modifications would better fit his particular situation. But it does show how a broad, general concept, the acquisition of which is an important aim of the social studies program, can be broken down into teachable parts.

Inspire the Student With a Desire to Understand Society. The most important factor in the achievement of the second objective is the teacher. There are all kinds of teachers, just as there are all kinds of people. There is the teacher who *can* inspire his pupils, and the teacher who cannot.

Since few, if any, social studies programs have as one of their stated goals the inspiring of the student with a desire to understand society, we may take a little time to discuss how this objective may be achieved.

First, let us examine the objective and see what it is *not*. It is not the acquisition of an understanding of society. No school child can be expected to understand society. He can, and too frequently does, leave school with the conviction that he does understand it. Perhaps he understands one small phase of it, if he is very smart. More likely he knows some facts and has drawn some conclusions. Most likely of all he leaves school with the desire never to see a history book again. If he has a good background of information, and if he has seen something of the complexity of society, he may want to seek further for the answer to the riddle. But the chances are that he will put history behind him as he does algebra, Spanish II, and Shakespeare. History was a subject he took in school. If he passed it, then it is behind him. He struggled with it, he overcame it. If he didn't pass it, then he assumes that he is poor in history. History, then, takes its place beside pole vaulting, public speaking, and penmanship as a thing in school at which he wasn't good, and, since school is a thing of the past, something with which he need no longer bother.

History is not just a school subject. It is the record of past achievements and failures. It explains why we do what we do today, and why we will probably have to do what we do tomorrow. The student leaving high school becomes an active member of society.

Almost everything he does is going to affect society, and society is going to affect everything he does. Therefore, he should want to understand society. The student who leaves school without the desire to understand society is not equipped to take his place in society.

The teacher who parades the classroom asking questions and demanding correct answers is not inspiring the student with a desire to understand society. He is inspiring the student, if at all, with the desire to give the teacher the correct answer. The citizen who goes out into the world with the idea that for every problem there is a right or wrong answer is going to be among the eagerest victims of a demagogue.

The teacher who divides his program into units and makes every unit a problem, and the work of the class a problem-solving undertaking, is not necessarily inspiring his pupils with a desire to understand society. He may be making them believe that society is made up of problem units which can be solved. A good social studies unit in some communities for some classes might be a study of labor and management. A good way to approach it might be through preparation for a debate, or a round table discussion. There could be a 100 per cent class participation culminating in a spirited, well thought out, informative discussion, followed, perhaps, by an opportunity to hear a factory manager and a union representative discuss the question. Most teachers would be proud of such a unit, but whether it has been a step toward achieving the second objective, depends on the reactions of the students. It has not, if they tell you some time later that they have "taken up" or "done" labor and management.

The teacher must not delude his students into thinking that they can solve society's problems in the classroom. He must not, through his presentation, let them delude themselves. Society's problems cannot be solved by adolescents, but the adolescent can be inspired with the desire to understand what the problems are.

The truth is that most of us are not very good teachers. We are, on the whole, just average human beings. We have our prejudices, our strong convictions. Even more, perhaps, than people in other walks of life we withdraw into an academic nook and watch society go by. Too many of us tend to become pontifical—to think that we know the answers. Too few of us are students ourselves. How, then, are we, by our example, going to inspire our pupils with a desire we don't ourselves feel? Many of us teach other subjects in addition to the social studies. Most of us are overworked and underpaid. Few of us have sufficient educational or experiential background to be good social studies teachers. Having been a part of society, more or less, for some time, and found our

rut or niche, we too often feel that we *do* have the right answers. How are we ordinary, average teachers going to achieve the second objective with our social studies programs?

We are going to do it by adjusting ourselves to a new conception of what our function is. To begin with, we have more than one function, depending upon the school or system in which we work. In the college preparatory school we must prepare students for college entrance exams. In the rural community, we must prepare our students to be good citizens of a rural community. As far as the school and the community is concerned our function is quite clear.

We must become students ourselves. We must let our students *know* that we are students. If they see that we, as representatives of adult society, are still trying to understand society, they will have a better perspective. A few heated adult pronouncements, the editorials in irresponsible newspapers, and the ill-considered ideas of demagogues may lead them to believe that society is simple and that there are simple right and wrong answers. We may find it difficult to make headway against such attitudes, but at least we can so conduct ourselves that, *should* the objective be achieved, we can honestly say that it was achieved because of us, not in spite of us.

Give the Student, Through the Study of History, the Necessary Background for Understanding Society. History books, and other social studies books, contain too many facts. The acquisition of information by the school child is of little value, and may even be dangerous, unless this information is evaluated in terms of its relative importance.

The object of the history class should be to present the background information necessary for further study. To present so much information that the student feels he knows all that is important, is to do the student a dis-service. To ignore history and deal only with civic and community projects, is also to do a dis-service.

It is essential that the social studies program fit the immediate needs of the student, as well as his future needs. A class from a rural community might well spend its time on a study of soil erosion, better farming methods, etc. But it need not do so at the expense of the historical perspective. A history of farming methods, from the time of the early Egyptians with their irrigation problems, through the Middle Ages, to the inventions of farm machinery in modern times could be presented as a fascinating unit to even the most practical minded students. Such a unit would meet student needs and at the same time provide the enrichment of an historical perspective.

It is a mistake to feel that society should be presented as simple to those who live simple or remote lives. Perhaps life isn't very complex for the farm

boy. Possibly his whole life will be spent on the farm. He may never get out into a complex society. Nevertheless he is a part of this society, and the complexities of society are definitely influencing his life. He, perhaps more than the more sophisticated city child, should be given the background necessary for an understanding of society. And this background is history.

No social studies project designed to meet the needs of some particular type of class need be changed to achieve this third objective. All that is necessary is that the historical foundation which is always there be pointed out and pointed up. There are certain fundamental historical facts and patterns which it is vital to know before one can undertake a study of society and one's place in it. The child from a rural community or the child from the slums should not be deprived of this background. He needs it, perhaps more than the child with an academic background already, so that he may find his place in society and help make it better.

The child whose background is more academic and cultural and whose program provides a full and formal study of history, is often poorly prepared for a later study of society. In the first place, as we have said, he frequently feels that he knows a great deal about society already. In the second place, he has learned so many facts that he cannot correctly evaluate them or recognize the significant historical patterns.

Here again, the teacher whose job it is to prepare for college entrance examinations, or state scholarship examinations, may feel handicapped in achieving the true objective. A large number of facts and concepts have to be taught for these tests. But again it is a question of emphasis, evaluation and perspective.

It is not necessary to indicate which facts of history are important in making up this background. Certain events are of great significance, certain other ones are not. The conquest of Portugal by Philip II in 1581 is not significant in the long run; the defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588 is. Both facts might be asked for on a college entrance examination, and the teacher whose job is to prepare for that exam must see that his students know them both, but he will achieve the real objective of his program if he shows how the second event was really significant in such a way that it will become part of the background of information necessary to the pupil for his further study of society.

There are, however, certain abstract concepts regarding history which the student should have, which are not to be found in the history books, which are often overlooked in the non-history social studies program, and which are a necessary part of a rich background. We list a few as examples:

1. History is the record of what people in the past have done.
2. History is the record of what people in the past have thought.
3. History is the record of what people in the past have hoped for.
4. History shows how people have succeeded in making society better.
5. History shows us why people have failed in making society better.
6. History shows us how people have reacted to events, plans, ideas, and ideals in the past.
7. History shows us what conditions are responsible for the ideas, ideals, and plans of the present.
8. History shows us why we are the way we are.
9. History shows us why we are doing what we are doing.
10. We study history to discover why society is the way it is.
11. It is necessary to know where we are, en route to a better society, before we can go on.

These are not difficult concepts to incorporate into any social studies program. Like the other objectives, the provision for the necessary historical background should be begun with the first social studies classes in the primary grades and amplified and enriched until the end of the twelfth year.

Teach the Student the Skills Necessary for the Study of History. The good student of history or social studies must be skillful. In order to succeed as a student, he must have certain abilities, some of them purely mechanical. It should be one of the objectives of the social studies program to see that he acquires these skills.

Some of the most telling work having this objective can be done, and should be done, in the fourth, fifth and sixth grades, since these skills are largely reading skills. The social studies teacher should adopt the attitude that the teaching of reading is an essential part of the teaching of social studies. Many a student is poor in history because he does not know how to read.

All teachers should train themselves in the techniques of reading instruction, especially the social studies teacher. With this knowledge he can get at the basis of the student's reading problems. Needless to say, the acquisition of such knowledge and techniques involves study and research on the part of the teacher. He may feel that this study is too time-consuming, and not a part of his program, but in the end he will find that it pays dividends in better social studies work.

As for its application to the social studies program, the teacher may find it necessary to do some basic ground work in reading at each grade level, and in the upper grades he may find it necessary to take time out especially for this teaching. This time is not wasted and it will not disrupt the program or make it impossible to do the scheduled work. Students who have had instruction in the reading skills involved in social studies work will more than make up the time spent on this instruction.

In the middle grades it may hardly be necessary to take special time for reading instruction as a separate activity since the social studies program at this level might well devote itself entirely to the social studies reading skills. Many readers for these grades are social studies readers. Since the social studies program for the middle grades may well be of an exploratory nature, it doesn't matter so much what is read as how it is read. If the teacher in the middle grades has to teach formal, academic history, he may have to make provision for special reading instruction. It will pay him to do so.

Here are some of the skills which it is necessary for a good social studies student to have:

1. The ability to follow written directions.
2. The ability to select the central thought of a paragraph.
3. The ability to select the central thought from a chapter.
4. Given a project the ability to select the pertinent information from a unit of diversified reading materials.
5. The ability to pick out relevant material from a unit of reading.
6. The ability to draw inferences.
7. The ability to interpret the author's meaning.
8. The ability to use the indexes rapidly.
9. The ability to use a card file correctly and rapidly.
10. The ability to interpret graphs and read maps.
11. The ability to outline.
12. The ability to organize ideas.
13. The ability to note details.
14. The ability to skim intelligently.
15. The ability to read as rapidly as the thought-content of the material will allow.

Although some of these skills can be really learned only by a secondary school student, most of them can be introduced to even a third grade child. The Progress in Reading Series, by Dr. Ernest Horn and others, which goes from the pre-primer through the sixth grade, concentrates on four skills: Location, Comprehension, Organization, and Remembering.

Other readers cover much the same ground. It is, then, possible to begin the teaching of the necessary social studies skills right at the beginning of the program. It is the job of the social studies teacher to emphasize these skills at each grade level, and show the pupil how important these skills are to the study of history and of society.

Once learned, the skills will not be forgotten, and once the student has learned to practice these skills, he will find that he can depend more and more upon himself for the acquisition of information. He will find that it is easy to dig down to the primary sources of information, and he will be less and less dependent upon secondary and interpretive sources which may be colored by bias. The student of society must be self-reliant. He must be able to find things out and work things out for himself. We want him to have an adequate historical background. In order to acquire this background, he must be a good history student. In order to be a good history student, he must have the necessary skills. Since these skills can be taught within the limitations of any program, the teaching of them is a natural objective of any program.

Attempt to Establish the Necessary Attitudes of a Successful Social Studies Student. It is not the function of the social studies program to remake society. It is the function of the program to fit school children to take their place in society, with a desire to learn about it, and with the hope that as they gradually learn about it, they will begin to improve it.

If the study of society is a lifetime responsibility, it is the function of the social studies program to inculcate attitudes which a successful social studies student should have. The teacher, being himself a student, can do a lot by being a good example. He can promulgate within his classroom certain simple rules which are basic to the right attitude of social studies students. By following them himself, and insisting that his students follow them, he can hardly help but achieve his objective at the end of twelve years.

Here are some suggested attitudes for the successful social studies student:

1. He should have an inquiring mind.
2. He should *want* to know *why*.
3. He should find out for himself.
4. He should not trust so-called experts to think for him.
5. He should be open-minded.
6. He should avoid prejudice.
7. He should investigate all sides of a question.
8. He should seek the truth.
9. He should go to primary sources whenever possible.

If these rules contain anything unique, it is that they concern themselves only with the student's atti-

tude toward *his work as a social studies student*. Not but what we hope that when he takes his place in society he will be open-minded, unprejudiced, etc. But we are considering the limitations of the classroom situation. No teacher, in the limited time at his disposal, can honestly expect to make model boys and girls of his pupils. So he limits himself to ideals and attitudes which specifically have to do with *social studies students*.

The United States history class, discussing the relative merits of the "loose constructionists" and the "strict constructionists," might better concern itself, not with which group was right, but with why each group felt as it did, and to what extent it was justified, in the light of the conditions of the time, in thinking so. Not that children, any more than adults, should not form opinions. What the social studies class can do, however, is equip the child to question and evaluate his opinions, and show him that opinions can change with changing conditions and situations.

Right attitudes instilled in the classroom toward the study of society will undoubtedly carry over and be applied to conduct in society.

Show the Student That History is Made up of Patterns, and That It is an Orderly Record in Which Cause Leads to Effect. It is important that the child realizes that history makes sense. Certainly the average textbook does not lead him to think so, nor will the hodge-podge program do so when one year he studies coal-mining and related industries, the next year United States history, the next year ancient history, the next year civics, and so on. Unless the program is truly developmental throughout all twelve grades, it is going to make little or no sense to the student if some effort is not made by the teacher to show him that there is order.

If the student is going to carry his study of society beyond the elementary beginnings provided by the textbook, he must, in school, be given the opportunity to see that there is a plan or design in the past upon which he can base his study of the present and his plans for the future.

The child who leaves school and takes his active place in society with some idea of the patterns of history is going to be better equipped than the child who knows every fact in the book but doesn't see that they form an orderly, logical pattern. His ability to follow the patterns will enable him to discover later whether the society in which he finds himself is facing new conditions or whether it is simply in the process of repeating an already familiar pattern.

If one thinks of history as a tapestry containing many intricate designs and colors, he will find that, like the tapestry that repeats certain designs and colors at intervals, history records the repetition of conditions and events.

Hannibal crossed the Alps to surprise the Romans from the rear. In our tapestry of history that stands out brightly and we notice it. Will we see that design again? Certainly. There, further on, is Washington crossing the Delaware in order to surprise the British from the rear. That, of course, is a very elementary example. But the school child understands that sort of order.

What are some of the patterns of world history? War is one. Revolution is another. Conquest is another. Migration is still another. And there are many more. The school child who is given an opportunity to discover these things for himself is going to have the right attitude toward history. He is going to see that history is orderly, that it makes sense, that similar events cause similar outcomes, and that similar conditions cause similar events.

Everything our generation is doing is not new. Much of what we do is because we have to as a result of what the generations before us did. We have our way to make in the world and we must make this way with other people. That is society in action. As Carl Becker says, you can't predict the future by studying the past, but you can anticipate it.

The social studies program should build for the future. The emphasis should be placed, not so much on what is done in the schoolroom, but what can and will be done later by the adult as a result of his preparation in the classroom. And this preparation should take the form, not so much of intensive drill and memorization of facts, or of investigations into social problems, but of training and preparing the mind for further and continued study along lines indicated, but not thoroughly explored, in the classroom.

Inculcate in the Student the Attitudes Which a Believer in, and a Citizen of, a Democracy Must Have. The life blood of a democracy is the attitude toward it of its citizens. We are sending our students into a democratic society. It is our job to see that their attitudes are right, and that their hands are capable of receiving such a valuable heritage.

A democratic society is the most complex of all. It is a way of life for mature, educated, thoughtful people. The principles of democracy can be taught to children. The right attitudes can also be taught. These principles and attitudes can be put into practice by children to the extent that the children can understand them. They are not simple concepts. It takes background, experience, and maturity to understand the workings of democracy. The school is not fitting the child to take his place in a democratic society by simplifying and short-cutting democratic processes and then letting the child play with them. The school system which thinks it is teaching democracy by letting the children play at it and go through the motions of controlling their own actions is, in fact,

only leading them blindfolded into a treacherous wilderness and leaving them there with the idea that they know their way about, when they really do not. The duly elected leader of some school institution who must seek teacher support to enforce his authority, which is too often the case, is giving an excellent demonstration of the weakness of democracy and the strength of dictatorship. Society is controlled by adults, not by children. Children, because they have not the background nor the knowledge to govern themselves, are governed by adults. The teacher is appointed to guide and control children in school by administrators duly chosen by the children's parents. That is part of the democratic process. Until the child can understand that, he is not ready to take the reins of control into his own hands. Adults hold these reins. If they let the children put their hands on them, too, and then fool them into thinking that they are really in control, they are doing their children an injustice.

It is the job of the school, not to set down rules of a game called "Democracy," and supervise the children while they play it, but to guide and train the children in the right attitudes and right concepts so that they may finally take their place in a real democratic society and know the real rules and the true ideals that make it up.

Here are a few fundamental concepts which the child should know:

1. The world *owes* him nothing.
2. One has always had to fight for freedom.
3. Democracy will succeed only so long as its citizens assume their responsibilities toward it.
4. The will of the majority shall prevail.
5. The desires of the minority must be considered.

The social studies program has succeeded in one of its most important functions if it has inculcated

its students with the proper attitudes for citizens of a democracy.

Testing the Achievement of Objectives. If objectives are practical, they can be taught for and tested for. Though teachers can hardly expect complete success in achieving their objectives with every child, they should, if they have a comprehensive testing program, at least know why, and to what extent, they have failed of achievement.

The teaching profession is too full of subjective evaluation. We talk about "educating the whole child." We may even claim, as an explanation of why the children in our school do not spell well, or write well, or know all the facts of history, that we are educating the whole child. If so, we should be able to measure, with some objectivity, our success.

In setting up objectives for the social studies in terms of attitudes and skills, we are attempting to get at "the whole child." We are trying to teach for something beside factual information. This is a worthy thing to do only insofar as we remain practical and objective in our attempt.

Many of us believe that it is better to educate the whole child rather than simply to teach him to read, write, and figure. If such education means less proficiency in reading, writing, and figuring, then we must be able to demonstrate, as objectively as we might in the special abilities, to what extent we have compensated for this lack of proficiency in achieving a better all-round education.

Those of us who teach and plan school programs are dealing with children. This fact at the same time limits and inspires us. Thousands of teachers in thousands of classrooms will never remake the world, but the millions of children, who come from those classrooms, can. Delimited as it is, our job is a big one. We must be sure that we know what we are trying to do, and we must do it within the limitations of our objectives.

Planning a Latin American Unit in American History

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In these days of national emergency, teachers are asking many questions as to how they can help win the war and make secure the peace. Especially is this true of teachers of American history.

Our office receives many inquiries, as naturally any large high school does, about courses of study,

methods of presentation, organization, and the like. Lately we have received numerous inquiries from different sections of the United States as to how we are teaching Pan-Americanism and its relation to the "Good Neighbor" policy and hemisphere defense.

To answer these questions and supply the needed

information is no small task, but the interchange of ideas among schools is professionally desirable. Therefore, it is our hope that in writing of our experiences (and having them accepted by a magazine of national scope) we may anticipate the problem of other schools in connection with a Latin American unit and thus contribute to its solution.

One may well wonder at this sudden interest in Latin America by the various schools of America at a time when our national interests are imperiled. One may further exclaim: "Why didn't we take an interest long ago in a continent whose history and civilization is older than our own?"

The dangers to our national interests were foreseen and pointed out to us by a succession of capable American patriots. That their advice was not followed is one of the tragic mistakes of American history. There is no logic in the reasoning of those who may contend that our past relations with Latin America have been entirely satisfactory. We have made mistakes, but now is the time to rectify them. We must re-examine our attitude toward Latin America if we hope to build a new world order after the triumph that must inevitably come to the United Nations.

We are not so naïve that we can refuse any longer to accept part of the responsibility, at least, for the present predicament of the United States. History teachers have too long been content to teach a little of "factual" American history and not enough about the socio-geographical nature of the world at large. Perhaps this has come from too much "idealism" and a smug belief in our own self-righteousness following World War I. Therefore, it behooves us even now to change from traditional teachings of the past and study American history in its relation to the whole world and especially to our neighbors both on the north and on the south. Therefore, we have assigned ourselves the present task of Latin America. Later, we expect to develop a similar unit on Canada.

Julian Bryan, noted lecturer and authority on Latin America, in a recent lecture in Reading stated that American boys and girls are too ignorant of the history and geography of Latin America. He begged that we revise our courses of study so as to enable our children to learn more than a mere "smattering" of facts, and prepare courses which will pave the way to a genuine Pan-American understanding. This should include the economic and social problems of Latin American people.

At the outset it must be understood that each school has its own particular problems and the suggestions contained herein are in no way final or intended as an answer to all problems.

It has been our experience, after careful analysis of existing plans, and after considerable study, that

the unit plan of work, following a definite thread in the pattern of the whole, is most adaptable to the students of the secondary school level. There is much in the unit beyond which the average student will not be able to go; however, the teacher should plan a minimum area of concentration. It is important that a few new things be learned well. Mere coverage of a unit of work does not necessarily carry with it complete mastery. Therefore, we shall dwell upon a few topics which we intend to master. We shall apportion work and time so that the student will not have to hurry. True, we realize that there is no magic formula which will be the "Open sesame" to the rich lore of history which is found in present-day education. What may be successful in our system may not be successful in another.

MATERIALS NEEDED

No workman can do a job if he does not have tools and implements necessary to the completion of a successful piece of work. The teacher is no exception to this rule and, to our minds, school boards should realize this if they have not already done so.

Paul V. McNutt in a radio address has given his opinion on the problem of school expenditure in the following manner:

We can defer building a road, a bridge, or a building, and catch up on its construction later. We cannot put educational opportunity for our children in cold storage for the duration of the war or even of a period of financial stress and restore it later to an unschooled generation grown old. These must go through life a lost generation, poisoning the processes of popular thought, political action, economic prosperity, and the national defense with their ignorance, lack of skill, and undisciplined judgments.

The greatest heritage we can bequeath to the future is an educated citizenry.

With financial limitations in mind, we do not suggest any elaborate library or other equipment. Some schools will no doubt possess these. Since most of the nation's schools do not fall in this category, a few simple suggestions will suffice for them.

In the first place, there are few schools in the United States that do not use one or several of the standard books listed further on in this article either as basic texts or as supplementary references. But most schools, even the smaller ones, can or should be willing to invest in a few of the more necessary books. It is almost imperative that books on Latin America of the Webster and Hussey type be acquired, a few at least. It is also important to possess a few of the *Foreign Policy Series* and of the *America Looks Ahead Series*. These are inexpensive, for they cost

about twenty-five cents each. The monthly publication, *The Pan-American*, is worth while to keep the students conscious of our friends to the south. It also keeps them up-to-date for a longer period than the brief study of this unit will permit.

There is a need for more study on the secondary school level of the geography of the respective countries of the world. Therefore, we suggest for the unit: wall maps and small outline maps of the world or Western Hemisphere. Outline maps of South America would also be helpful.

This list is by no means exhaustive. So much is being written and produced on this subject that the mail almost daily brings added valuable material.

For the teacher who wishes to make an even more detailed study, William F. Schurz's book, *Latin America* (New York: E. P. Dutton Company) and Preston E. James' *Latin America* (New York: Lothrop Lee and Shepard Company) are suggested.

Latin America by Richard M. Purdew of the Bronxville, New York, Schools, will serve as a great aid in planning a complete course on Latin America. It certainly will serve as a reference for unit planning.

Walter E. Myer has written a number of interesting articles on his recent South American trip. These were printed weekly in the *American Observer* during the months of October through April, 1942.

Inexpensive material costing but a few cents can be acquired from various sources, but the better known sources are the following: *Hemisphere Solidarity: Education and National Defense Series*, United States Office of Education, Superintendent of Documents. *The Teacher and International Relations*, Committee on Materials of Instruction of the American Council of Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.; also from the American Council of Education, *American Isolation Reconsidered*. The Natural Resources Planning Board, Washington, D.C., has prepared a marvelous piece of work on the post-war problems, entitled *After Defense What?* The United States Department of Commerce has excellent bibliographies on hemisphere defense and on Latin America. Excellent material is also available at the Office of the Coordination of Inter-American Affairs, Department of Commerce Building, Washington, D.C. *Pan-American Books and Information Inc.*, 50 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City specialize in the Pan-American field.

The Pan-American Union, Washington, D.C., and various travel bureaus will be pleased to forward illustrative material. Visual material in this field, while new, is in some respects plentiful. In the past available films have not always been suited for classroom use. We shall merely suggest a source of films rather than a complete list.

The best source in our opinion is the list published by International Films Center, 45 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City. This list comprises some 475 films of 16 mm. and 35 mm. The American Council of Education mentioned above is now at work compiling a complete list. In the near future this list will be made available to teachers.

METHODS OF PRESENTATION

It is impossible to suggest a definite method of presentation. School equipment, teacher training, teacher personality, student personality, and pupil abilities differ within a specific system and certainly to a greater degree differ in various communities. Thus, a well-formulated procedure may be highly successful in one school and fail utterly in another school.

We are interested only in a general plan that will meet the needs of different pupils. We realize that this plan will mean more work for teachers; but it is the only fair procedure. It is our job to prepare our pupils for worth while citizenship. Certainly *co-operation* and *intelligent understanding* should be the capstones of our program, regardless of specific method or methods.

When a method of procedure is being planned one must have ultimate and specific objectives in mind. If a work sheet or outline is prepared, the problem of how much of it shall be used for this or that group of pupils may be carefully selected by the teacher. A work sheet of a dozen or more pages has been prepared and is now in use in our school. It is entitled "Complications Involved in Arriving at a True Pan-American Understanding."

This work sheet is simply a guide. In some classes, especially superior college-preparatory classes, the entire sheet may be used; in other classes the teacher may consider it wise to use the basic material only. For example, in Part II, A-3, of the outline (Clayton-Bulwer Treaty), how deeply should one delve into the subject? Will mastery of the questions given in the unit be sufficient? If one decides that the information as given on the sheet is sufficient for high school boys and girls, there then follows the next question: Is there *ample material reserves within the classroom or school* so that the teacher can personally supervise the students' study habits?

It is suggested that one send a number of students in groups of three to the school library if the classroom library facilities are inadequate. Each group should be under the leadership of a capable and trusted student whose duty it should be to guide the rest in the acquisition of materials needed for a complete understanding of whatever problems are to be solved. When these groups return to the class, after ample time has been allotted to them for study, a

complete report should be made. The classroom students are then permitted to take notes and to ask further enlightening questions. Care should be exercised by the teacher in the selection of these groups so as to insure the success of the reports. A danger to be watched here is the fact that students, if they are not trained in proper study habits, will so often copy long pages of books and otherwise waste precious time on material which is not needed for an understanding of the problem. The teacher should insist upon a full participation by all the members of a class when such a method is used.

When the social studies teacher comes to the geography of the unit or to the economic discussion, the value of consulting the geography teacher and inviting him to the classroom for a period should be considered. The teacher should visit the museum. He should not be an island within his city, ignoring the factors which will enable the child to learn from every available source. Show motion pictures and slides. Perhaps there may be someone on the faculty, or in the community, who has lately visited some of these Latin American countries and who has experiences and pictures he or she will be delighted to share.

Encourage pupils to correspond with pupils in Latin American countries. If members of the faculty have contacts with teachers in these schools, this may be an effective method. For the past three years from 75 to 100 pupils in our school have corresponded with pupils in different Latin American countries.

Correspondence material (addresses, etc.) can be had from several sources. The following are suggested: The Pan-American League Headquarters, 3555 Poinciana Avenue, Miami, Florida; My Friend Abroad, Dr. Sven Knudsen, 248 Boylston Street, Boston, Massachusetts; The Caravan, International Correspondence Club, 132 East 65th Street, New York City; National Bureau of Educational Correspondence, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee.

Here is a point to remember. This method will not permit a strict page to page assignment from the textbook, but rather a topical approach to the subject-matter as a whole. Each student will know something of the subject under study, some more, some less, as is the nature of human beings. At the end of a topic, it is suggested that tests based upon the work be given. These should test brilliant students as well as the less able ones. Don't demand too much because these are growing boys and girls and the subject isn't the only one they are studying. Demand a few things well done, rather than many things poorly done.

Remember you are the teacher. You are not hired to "hear lessons" and "give assignments." It is your responsibility to *explain and test and explain again*

if necessary. The teacher is not expected to do the work of the student. A teacher soon recognizes the "leeches" of his classroom and treats them accordingly. He soon learns also the conscientious type whose questions should merit the attention of the teacher.

Remember, that a test will not reveal everything a student knows about the subject. He may know far more detail than the test will indicate. Listen to discussions. Learn how well he follows a serious study and pursues a given task. See whether he works for himself or borrows from his neighbor. In discussion, does he show a knowledge of the background of the topic? Does he have a general concept of the whole? Can he reason from the facts he has learned, or does he know just facts?

As a teacher, do you see whether he copies from the text or whether he writes a few notes of his own? In discussion does he take notes from, and about what, the other pupils say? In expediting the explanation of a given point, does he take notes on what you say?

If he does all of these things and possesses normal ability, he should be able to make progress and should be able to make a grade in comparison with the average "norms" of any standard achievement test in American history.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, we state again that what we do may not work with all groups and with all courses of study. We do believe, that in the larger sense the method briefly outlined here will to a greater degree permit the teaching of more American history, develop a critical attitude, develop proper responsibility in the habit of study and proper progress, enliven the subject, challenge the teacher, and finally keep the course constantly new and up-to-date.

UNIT IV. THE UNITED STATES JOINS A WORLD-WIDE CRUSADE

TOPIC I. COMPLICATIONS INVOLVED IN ARRIVING AT A TRUE PAN-AMERICAN UNDERSTANDING

Basic Texts:

- Muzzey, D. S., *A History of Our Country*, pp. 355, 566-570, 575, 627-637, 801-803, 862-864.
Wirth, F. P. *The Development of Our Country*, pp. 577, 603-612, 629-632, 735.

Supplementary References:

- Adams, J. T. and Vannest, C. G., *The Record of America*, pp. 278, 455-460, 485-487.
Adamson, Hans C., *Lands of New World Neighbors*. *American Observer*, October, 1941-April, 1942 (Contributions by Walter Myer).

- Barker, E. C., Dodd, Wm. E., and Commager, H. S., *Our Nation's Development*, pp. 294-295, 335, 344-345, 428, 440, 445-446, 469, 473-484, 489-490, 765.
- Bassett, J. S. *Short History of the United States*, pp. 37, 458, 645, 671-672, 777-781, 784-790, 806-807, 814-822, 826-827, 863-871, 928-930.
- Beard, C. A., and Beard, M. R., *The Making of American Civilization*, pp. 12, 239-241, 649-651, 657, 664, 670, 675-682, 776-778, 923, 929.
- Bidwell, P. W., *The Economic Defense of Latin America*.
- Canfield, L. H. and Wilder, H. B., *The United States in the Making*, pp. 270, 372, 642-650, 663-666, 677-693, 749-750, 864-865.
- Duggan, Stephan, *Latin America*, pp. 63-65.
- Faulkner, H. and Kepner, T., *America: Its History and People*, pp. 328, 621-630, 644-672, 801.
- Faulkner, H., Kepner, T., and Bartlett, H., *The American Way of Life*, Chap. XXIX, pp. 589-590.
- Fish, C. R., and Wilson H. E., *History of the United States*, pp. 17, 294, 375, 377, 485, 615-619, 625-628, 668, 674, 688, 696-699, 728-729, 736, 742.
- Fite, E. D., *History of the United States*, pp. 256-257, 478-481, 517-521, 522-527.
- Forman, S. E., *Our Republic*, pp. 259-260, 430, 494-495, 539-543, 575-577.
- Goetz, Delia and Fry, Varian, *The Good Neighbors*.
- Guitteau, W. B., *History of the United States for Secondary Schools*, pp. 429, 501, 565, 578-582, 590-592.
- Hamm, W. A., *The American People*, pp. 946-948, 950-960, 963-973, 919, 966-967.
- Hamm, W. A., Bourne, H. E., Benton, E. J., *Unit History of the United States*, pp. 696-703, 713, 732-741, 742-757, 759-767.
- Hamm, W. A. and Dombrow, Oscar, *Modern America: Current Problems in American History*, Chaps. XII, XIII, XIV.
- Harlow, R. V., *The Story of America*, pp. 617-620, 623-624, 629-630, 639, 647-653.
- Henius, Frank, *The A.B.C. of Latin America*.
- James, Preston E., *Latin America*.
- Jernegan, M. W., Carlson, H. E., and Ross, A. C., *Growth of the American People*, pp. 371, 407, 554, 623-631.
- Lawson, F. M. and Lawson, V. K., *Our America Today and Yesterday*, pp. 371, 566-568, 676.
- McCulloch, John I. B., *Challenge to the Americas. Pan-American*, *The* (periodical).
- Peck, Anne M. *Pageant of South American History*.
- Rauschenbush, Joan, *Look at Latin America* (Headline Book, Foreign Policy Association).
- Stewart, Watt, and Peterson, H. F., *Builders of Latin America*.

The Inter-American Monthly (Washington, D.C.).
Webster, H. and Hussey, R. D., *History of Latin America*, Chaps. X-XI.

Foreign Policy Pamphlet Series.

America Looks Ahead Series (World Peace Foundation).

OUTLINE

I. Isolation

- A. The Meaning of Isolation
- B. Isolation and the Monroe Doctrine
- C. The Monroe Doctrine and Pan-Americans
 1. Old Interpretation
 2. New Interpretation

II. The Panama Canal

- A. Early Interest in Isthmian Canal
 1. Balboa-Champlain
 2. Treaty with New Granada, 1846
 3. Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, 1850
 4. The French Attempt to Build a Canal
 5. Hay-Pauncefote Treaty
 6. Purchase of French Interests
- B. The American Government Constructs the Canal
 1. Nicaragua or Panama?
 - a. Advantages and Disadvantages of Each Route
 2. Hay-Herran Treaty with Colombia
 - a. Why Rejected
 3. Panama Revolution
 - a. Causes—Results
 4. Hay-Bunau-Varilla Treaty
 5. Work of Goethals and Gorgas
- C. The Canal in American Diplomacy and Defense
 1. The Panama Tolls Question
 2. The Good Gesture Towards Colombia, 1921
 3. The Canal in the American Line of Defense
 4. Bryan-Chamorro Treaty

III. Our Caribbean Sea Policy

- A. Economic Imperialism
 1. Markets and "Spheres of Influence"
 2. Interpreting the Doctrine for Military Interventions and Political Control
- B. Application of the Monroe Doctrine
 1. Mexico
 - a. Maximilian Affair
 - b. Reign of Porfirio Diaz and Successors
 - c. "Watchful Waiting"
 - d. A.B.C. Conference
 - e. Vera Cruz Incident

- f. Pershing and the Punitive Expedition
- g. Constitution of 1917
- h. Obregon Agreement, 1923
- i. Alien Land and Petroleum Act, 1925
- j. Adjustment by Mexican Supreme Court, 1925
- k. Subsequent Relations since 1925
- 2. First Venezuela Question, 1895
 - a. Olney Doctrine
- 3. Second Venezuela Question, 1902
 - a. Roosevelt Corollary
 - b. Drago Code
 - (1) Adoption at Second Hague Conference
- 4. Santo Domingo
 - a. Policy of U. S. Grant
 - b. Policy of T. R. Roosevelt
 - c. Policy of Franklin Roosevelt
- 5. Haiti, 1915
 - a. Policy of Woodrow Wilson
 - b. Treaty of 1916
 - c. Constitution of 1917
 - d. Forbes Commission
- 6. Nicaragua
 - a. Knox-Castrillo Treaty
 - b. Bryan-Chamorro Treaty, 1916
 - c. Policy of Coolidge, 1924
 - (1) Stimson Compromise, 1927
 - (2) Elections of 1928
 - d. Subsequent Relations Since 1932
- 7. Cuba
 - a. Platt Amendment
 - b. Policy of F. D. Roosevelt, 1934
- 8. Chile
 - Policy of President Benjamin Harrison

IV. *Pan-Americanism*

- A. Meaning of the Term
- B. The First Pan-American Conference
 - 1. J. Q. Adams
 - 2. Simon Bolivar
- C. James G. Blaine and Pan-America
- D. The Pan-American Conference
 - 1. Pan-American Conferences
 - 2. Pan-American Union
 - a. Purposes
 - 3. Sixth Pan-American Conference, 1928
 - a. Charles Evans Hughes
 - b. Treaties of Arbitration
 - c. Failure of Treaties and Disputes, 1932-1933
 - 4. Seventh Pan-American Conference, 1933
 - 5. Convention of Lima, 1938
 - 6. Havana Conference, 1940
 - 7. Convention of Rio de Janeiro, 1942

V. *Culture of Latin America*

- A. The People and their Government
 - 1. Classes of Society
 - 2. Different Governments
 - 3. Labor and Social Problems
 - 4. Influence of Foreign Investments
- B. The Geography of the Regions
 - 1. The Vast Plains
 - 2. The River Systems
 - 3. Inland Cities and Harbors
 - 4. Land-locked States
- C. The Products and Manufacturers
 - 1. What they Produce
 - 2. Necessity of American Trade
 - a. National Defense
 - b. American Tariff Policy
 - c. Changes toward a Good-Neighbor

VI. *A Good-Neighbor Policy and Hemisphere Defense*

- A. "Fifth Column" Activities a Danger in South America?
- B. Naval and Air Base Agreement with England and Other South and Central American Governments
- C. New Defense of the Panama Canal
 - 1. New System of Locks Started in December, 1940
 - 2. New Air Fields Given by Panama
- D. "The Ramparts We Watch"
 - 1. Expansion of the Monroe Doctrine to Include Co-interpretation (Buenos Aires 1936)
 - 2. Are foreign possessions in the Western Hemisphere included in the Monroe Doctrine?
- E. Hemisphere Defense and the Second World War
 - 1. Cooperative Action of Sister Republics

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

I. *Isolation*

- 1. Why was the Monroe Doctrine as originally interpreted a splendid policy of isolation?

II. *Panama Canal*

- 1. What treaty was made with Colombia (New Granada) in 1846?
- 2. Why was a treaty necessary with England in 1850?
- 3. Why was the Hay-Pauncefote treaty important in United States Canal interests?
- 4. a. Why was the Panama route favored over the Nicaraguan route?
 - b. Which would be the more advantageous to us?
- 5. a. In comparing the Hay-Herran Treaty and

the Hay-Bunau-Varilla Treaty, why was the one rejected and the other accepted?

- b. How adjusted by the Morrow Mission?
6. a. Why did England object to the Panama Canal Tolls Act?
- b. What is the custom of nations concerning their own domestic coast-wise trade?
- c. How was President Wilson able to solve this problem by bargaining with England in return for a concession of a diplomatic point in Mexico?

III. Our Caribbean Policy

1. What is meant by "economic imperialism"?
2. List as many arguments as you can for and against imperialism.
3. What were the results of the American economic penetration with Mexico?
4. What attempts were made by President Diaz to neutralize American influence,
5. Discuss the factors which led President Wilson to alter his policy of "Watchful Waiting."
6. a. What was contained in the Alien Land Petroleum Act of 1925 which made it so distasteful to the United States?
- b. How adjusted?
7. a. What attitude have England and United States assumed on the confiscation of oil lands under the Cardenas regime?
8. A new interpretation was given to the Monroe Doctrine by Cleveland in the First Venezuelan Affair in 1895. Explain briefly.
9. Discuss the importance of the Roosevelt Corollary and Drago Code as applied to the Second Venezuelan Affair.
10. Compare Theodore Roosevelt's policy with that of Franklin D. Roosevelt's in reference to the treatment of Santo Domingo. Which do you prefer? Why?
11. a. Describe the methods and the results obtained by the intervention of the United States in Haiti, particularly stressing our aid in helping them select a new president and a new constitution. Do you agree with this type of help? Why?
- b. What is the present relationship between Haiti and the United States?
12. Why were the business interests of the United States so anxious to have the Knox-Castrillo treaty with Nicaragua ratified?
13. a. Review the political history of Nicaragua with reference to the interest of the United States.
- b. Briefly give the details of the Stimson Agreement of 1927.
14. What relationship exists at present between

the United States and Cuba with regard to the Platt Amendment?

IV. Pan-Americanism

1. Many far-sighted men were interested in Pan-Americanism long before the policy actually became adopted. Study the activities of the following men in respect to this policy:
 - a. John Q. Adams
 - b. Simon Bolivar
 - c. Henry Clay
 - d. James G. Blaine
2. a. List and describe the *real* purposes of the Pan-American Union.
- b. How can these purposes best be achieved?
3. a. Review the achievements of the Pan-American Conferences starting with the sixth of 1928.
- b. Stress in particular the achievements of the Lima and Havana Conferences.

V. Culture of Latin America

1. Study Chapter X of *Latin America* by Webster & Hussey and draw up seven important problems confronting our sister states, the solution of which, depends upon the help of the United States.
2. Read Chapter I of *Latin America* by Webster & Hussey or consult some other source for a historical and geographical description of South America, paying particular attention to your outline. How does the geography of twenty-one South and Central American Republics offer a difficult problem, in trade, commerce, etc.; as different from that of forty-eight United States?
3. Why is trade between United States and South America so vital both in economic well-being and hemisphere defense? (Consult one of the *Foreign Policy Booklets*).
4. From a study of Joan Raushenbush's *Look at Latin America*, pp. 32ff., make a list of the important imports and exports of the principle Latin American countries. (Consult your teacher as to ways of doing this work, graphs, charts, etc.)
5. a. Why was it necessary for the United States to change its traditional policy towards the tariff as concerns Latin America?
- b. Study any of the *Foreign Affairs Booklets* for the answer to this question.

VI. Good-Neighbor Policy and Hemisphere Defense

1. a. Consult some good reference mentioned above and report on how the "Fifth Columnists" operate.
- b. Study the history of the other lands to determine the havoc wrought by these people.

2. What achievements from present standpoints have been made in eradication of them from South American Countries since The Havana Conference?
3. a. Naturally all Western Hemisphere nations must cooperate in the problem of hemisphere defense. From any source, discuss the degree and amount of cooperation given to the United States by Latin America.
- b. By the United States to Latin America.
4. What cooperation has been achieved between Pan-American nations as a result of World War II?

ITEMS TO IDENTIFY

Panama Canal

1. "Dollar Diplomacy"
2. Sea-level *vs.* Lock-level Canal
3. Walker Commission

Our Caribbean Sea Policy

1. "Tampico Incident"
2. *De facto*
3. "Watchful Waiting"
4. A.B.C. Powers
5. Mexican Constitution, 1917
6. Alien Land and Petroleum Act
7. Olney Doctrine
8. Drago Code
9. Roosevelt Corollary
10. Second Hague Conference
11. Constitution of 1917
12. Forbes Commission
13. Platt Amendment

Pan-Americanism

1. Pan-American Conference
2. Convention of Rio, 1942

Culture of Latin America

1. Sierra Madre Occidental
2. Sierra Madre Oriental
3. Mayas
4. Pampas
5. Savannas
6. Steppes
7. Aztecs
8. Bravos
9. Pan-American Airways
10. Serf
11. Meztizos
12. Tariff *vs.* Free Trade

Good-Nighbor Policy and Hemisphere Defense

1. Monroe Doctrine

2. Hemisphere solidarity
3. "Colossus of the North"
4. Buenos Aires Conference, 1936
5. Economic cooperation
6. Foreign Investments
7. Foreign Airways
8. American Leases
9. Rio de Janeiro Conference, 1942

NAMES TO IDENTIFY

(These may be expanded by the teacher as necessary. The list is not all-inclusive.)

1. San Martin
2. Simon Bolivar
3. Bernardo O'Higgins
4. Richard Olney
5. Jos' Manuel Balmaceda
6. Patrick Eagan
7. Fulgencio Batista
8. Dr. Arnulfo Arias
9. Dr. William Gorgas
10. George W. Goethals
11. Cordell Hull
12. Pancho Villa
13. General Lazero Cardenas
14. Francisco Madero
15. Victoriano Huerta
16. Venustiano Carranza
17. Juarez
18. Alvaro Obregon
19. Avila Camacho
20. Getulio Vargas
21. Roberto Ortiz
22. Ramon S. Castillo
23. Manuel Prado
24. Isaías Medina

PROJECTS AND SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Make a chart suggesting the trade in major products between the United States and countries of Latin America.
2. Take any ten of the Latin American Republics and make a list of their major problems and their attempts to solve them.
3. Get the address of some boy or girl in Latin America (your teacher will help you) and correspond with them.
4. Take any Latin American leader and write about his achievements.
5. Make a list of countries and their European immigrants and tell why their problems are similar or different from ours.
6. Make an economic map of Latin America showing what each nation grows or produces.
7. Study the rate of exchange of any one Latin American country and show how that country would benefit by a generous trade treaty with us.

Revised Historical Viewpoints

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THE ORIGINS OF THE WAR OF 1812¹

Warren H. Goodman has made an excellent summary of the various interpretations of the causes of the War of 1812. During the nineteenth century, historians preached the dogma of maritime rights as the sole cause. They overlooked the reference in Madison's war message to British responsibility for the renewal of Indian warfare. They took no note of the sectional character of the vote on the war. Henry Adams was the first to note that interpretation based exclusively on maritime matters was an oversimplification. J. W. Pratt in 1925 developed in a monograph the findings of Adams and Channing which challenged the role played by commercial attacks and impressments.

In 1911, Howard T. Lewis declared the war to have been fought for the agricultural land reserves of Canada. In the same year D. R. Anderson set forth the view that the West believed the Indian problem could be solved only by ousting the British from North America. Louis M. Hacker in 1924 independently repeated the Lewis thesis of land hunger, but in 1925 J. W. Pratt demolished Hacker's thesis. Pratt showed that the westerners openly talked in the press and in Congress of getting the fur trade of Canada. They made no mention of lands. Moreover there were plenty of good lands still unsettled in the Old Northwest. Randolph cited other profit motives than agrarian cupidity as causing the war. As for the Indians there were only 5,000 to oppose 1,000,000 white settlers. But the British-Indian tie left the Northwest insecure. The westerners would end it by defeating the Indians and taking Canada.

Goodman declares that the West could not have been the chief motivator for the war since there was no clear-cut sectional vote. In Massachusetts the vote was eight to six against war and five of the affirmative votes came from coastal areas. New Hampshire cast three of its five votes for war, and Vermont three of its four, the lone peace vote coming from northwestern Vermont. Pennsylvania which was only half a western state cast sixteen of its eighteen votes for war. Maryland favored the war, six to three. All coastal representatives from Virginia and North Carolina favored the war.

Hacker's belief that the Indian problem was unimportant to the West was demolished by Pratt;

Anderson's thesis was that the British were fought because the Indian stood in the way of the advancing frontier and the British stood behind the Indian. Anderson said the South supported the war because of its desires to get Florida. Channing in his history, 1925, declared the aims of the South and West were in conflict but that the South thought that the conquest of Canada would obviate some northern opposition to the acquisition of slave territory.

Pratt's study of some western newspapers, 1807 and 1808, yielded no western evidence of western desire for Canada. Goodman declares that it is important to know if such a desire antedated the Tecumseh rebellion and the implied means of waging war on the British as an ally of the Indians. A sampling examination of some five Virginian and North Carolinian newspapers for 1807-1812 does not show any objections to the annexation of Canada. Pratt quoted some 1,811 speeches by the War Hawks showing designs on Canada but he omitted their other references to other causes and objects of the war. Grundy included in one of his speeches the right of exporting the products of our own soil and industry to foreign markets.

George Rogers Taylor in 1931 said the Westerner was opposed to the British Orders-in-Council and the French Decrees because they cut off his market. In the House, before 1812 Calhoun, Bibb, and Macon expressed a similar view. (But as Pratt has shown the shipping East chiefly voted against a war allegedly fought in this interest.)

Goodman calls for a new synthesis by a reexamination of the sources. He believes that these contributing causes should be considered: a desire to defend national honor; the hunger for agricultural land; the belief that the Indian problem could be settled by removing the British from the continent; the competition between Americans and Canadians for the fur trade of the Northwest; the lust of the South for the Floridas; Anglophobia, the anti-English ideas and propaganda of political exiles from England and Ireland; the desire to end the Spanish interference with the export trade of Mississippi and Alabama; the idea of manifest destiny; the desire to foster domestic manufactures by excluding British products; and the West's desire to improve its economic condition by forcing the repeal of the British Orders-in-Council.

Goodman's appraisal gives only passing notice to the old thesis of a war to defend maritime rights. A recent book on British-American relations by a

¹ Warren H. Goodman, "The Origins of the War of 1812; A Survey of Changing Interpretations," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XXVIII (September, 1941), 171-186.

Canadian writer, A. L. Burt, in three of its chapters revives this thesis as the main cause, deemphasizing western aims and interests.² In support of the maritime thesis Burt calls attention to the fact that we were close to war on that issue in 1809 and that about that time Erskine, the British minister, had affected an agreement to stop impressments and attacks on our ships but was recalled as having exceeded his instructions.

Burt says the British violations menaced our independence and threatened our sovereignty placing ourselves in the position of trading only with British permission. In defense of his thesis Burt cites a resolution of the New York State legislature of January 1812 denouncing British impressments and Orders-in-Council. He calls attention to a Federalist movement in December 1811 to bring on war against Britain, as Foster the new British minister reported, for the purpose of internal politics, hoping to discredit the Virginia dynasty by an expected defeat and thereby regaining control of the government. But by February the Federalists abandoned this tactic. Foster also told his government that much anti-British sentiment and action was due to the Irish refugees who owned most of the newspapers. Sir James Craig, British Indian agent in Canada opposed any Indian war against us in 1811 and opposed any British encouragement declaring the Americans would blame Britain for Indian attacks and that they would invade Canada which would easily be lost.

Burt declares that the South wanted the Floridas in order to get outlets to the sea, as Europe, and not England, was the market for their tobacco and cotton. Hence the South fought for defense of commercial rights. John Randolph's oft quoted speech on Canada as the object of the war was but a paragraph in a long speech delivered six months before the war. Thereafter he never alluded to Canadian conquest as a war object. On June 26, 1812, Monroe wrote to Russell to arrange for an armistice if the Orders-in-Council were repealed, if no illegal blockade was substituted for them, and if impressment was stopped. Castlereagh refused this bargain unless some other arrangement was made to secure the object of impressment.

Burt's account is based purely upon diplomatic correspondence concerning maritime issues. The views of Foster et al., he construes literally, not considering any other motives underlying diplomatic language, such as the multiplicity of western aims alluded to by Goodman. Burt dismisses Pratt's thesis in one paragraph and reveals that we were in no condition to wage a war, lacking an army, navy and finances. The Treasury had been depleted by loss of revenue occasioned by the stoppage of imports through the

Embargo, other non-intercourse acts and smuggling. The Embargo had been repealed as part of our 1809 bargain with Erskine as a quid pro quo for the repeal of the Orders-in-Council and the stoppage of impressments.

As Goodman declares, further research must be made into other sources: newspapers, government documents, debates in Congress, private letters and diaries and so forth before we can know more definitively what caused the war, and especially the significance of the sectional vote on the war. In such research the historians should investigate the government's Indian and land policy in the cis-Mississippi region. Closely connected with that would be the matter of land speculation there and the speculators' relations with the government officials, somewhat as Alvord and Abernethy have done for the Revolution. Then too, the fur trade policy, as connected with land cessions from the Indians, needs investigation. Washington, Adams, and Jefferson had all established government fur-trading posts to eliminate foreign traders in order to deal effectively with the Indians on land cessions. This was the chief purpose of the Lewis and Clark expedition. A similar policy may have had a direct bearing on the war.³

RUSSIA AND THE AMERICAN ACQUISITION OF THE PHILIPPINES⁴

A study of the Russian archives and the Russian press shows that Russia in 1898 had no objections to the United States taking the Philippines; but was ready to oppose any foreign opposition to annexation by the United States. Particularly Russia was opposed to England gaining any of the Philippine Islands. Russia expected that the United States would support its activities in Korea. It was apprehended that a concert of powers would be anti-Russian and would partition the islands among themselves.

Russia welcomed our occupation of Hawaii. This would delimit German, British, and Japanese power in the Pacific. However, some Russian officials feared American expansion into Asia as its investments would compete with those of Russia in China. Russia and other European nations were suspicious of an Anglo-American alliance whereby the United States would cooperate with England in the Orient. England's colonial secretary, Chamberlain, here on a visit, September 1898, had said that the United States would benefit by annexing the Philippines since America could then demand a voice in the settlement of the Chinese problem. The Russian ambassador so informed his government. It was to

² Ralph B. Guinness, "The Purpose of the Lewis and Clark Expedition," *Mississippi Valley Review*, XX (June, 1933), 90-100.

³ James K. Eyre, Jr., "Russia and the American Acquisition of the Philippines," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XXVIII (March, 1942), 539-562.

⁴ A. L. Burt, *The United States, Great Britain, and British North America* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1940).

Russia's interest, however, that a power like the United States, strong enough to keep out others, should take the Philippines.

The press of other countries tried to make Russia

appear antagonistic to the United States occupation of the Philippines. However, the Russian press had either been very tactful in discussing the war, or had been a warm supporter of the United States.

A General Education Plan

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"General Education" at South High School, Denver, Colorado, was so named because of the broad meaning of the term; that is, it is concerned with the general or complete education of the students that come under its scope. This is not a system which was superimposed on the school by the administrators. It is rather an outcome of a natural development from the home room, considered as a real *home* room, then broadened into the core program, and finally developed into the present general education setup. It is a product of a type of educational planning which grew out of the experiences of a group. The progress made was through teacher-teacher, teacher-administrator, teacher-pupil, pupil-pupil, and teacher-pupil-parent planning. It is thus a collaboration for the complete (general) education of the individual students. It is the hope of the members of the group to meet more nearly the ideal of having a place in the educational setup where they can make a real educative *home* for the young citizens in their charge. This is the ideology back of those in Denver who work with this problem. It is felt that we are beginning to get some spark of development that will challenge us to accelerate our efforts in this direction. The writer, although he poses as no expert, wishes to outline this plan which is unifying the Denver schools. Since he has had most of his experience at South High School he feels that he should confine his remarks to that school.

Perhaps, the reader will get a more vivid picture of the experiment if he has a brief idea of the nature of the school. South High School is located near the University of Denver and thus has the example of an urban university to stimulate the students to attend some college after graduation. From the tower, one sees to the south the urban university. To the north, he is impressed by the view of the business section of the city and thus some turn to business for their life's work. The view to the east shows a seminary and some welfare institutions which challenge students of all sects toward those noble professions. Then to the west, one views the lofty peaks which stimulate the students to higher aspirations.

The residence section in the south is one of substantial homes. The patrons of the school are of an average income level. There is a relatively homogeneous group of children attending the school. About eighty teachers and administrators teach and guide a population of approximately 2,600 students.

About fifty of the teachers have general education classes. Several others would like to participate, but their schedule of subject matter classes prevents their participation; however, it is intended that all who wish to avail themselves of this teaching privilege shall be given an opportunity to have one of these classes as nearly as it is administratively possible. The school has the necessary equipment for this type of teaching method. A splendid system of visual education, which a movie club helped make possible, furnishes enough movie apparatus for classrooms to show pictures illustrating the work they are studying. Equipment is available for several rooms to show pictures during the same period. Also many other visual aids and a very fine and growing collection of materials for use in teaching units of general education have been secured.

The general education groups are fortunate in having easy access to the local community (this is being retarded somewhat by the war rubber shortage) where they can study the industrial plants, dairies, welfare institutions, civic enterprises, water purification, and many other civic and private activities. To coordinate this study a group of outside business and municipal men speak to these classes. Some of the students, with the aid of the coordinators, keep a list of these speakers, annotated as the nature of their contribution to general education.

South High School has always been a progressive school and has made a continued stride toward general education by following a logical sort of procedure which grew out of the experience of the students, parents, and teachers under the leadership of the principal. The home room was inaugurated and made a real *home* of the students with a teacher-parent. At first these home rooms were grouped according to sex for the purpose of handling the guidance of these groups, but with the introduction of the core program they were made co-educational as

¹ Private, United States Army, 14th Armored Division. On leave from school duties.

the rest of the classroom situations were. Mr. J. J. Cory, Assistant Superintendent of Schools in Denver, devised the plan of the three R's for the school, which are still a part of the philosophy of students and teachers. These are "Responsibility, Reasonableness, and Respect."² It was felt that everyone—students, teachers, parents, and administrators would assume *responsibility* for the furthering of the school's family life, which was based on all things being done for a specific reason and with all respecting one another.

After the home room idea had been in operation for a few years, Dr. Wilfred Aiken conceived a plan whereby thirty schools participated in an eight-year experiment which was sponsored by the Progressive Education Association. South High School was one of the schools in this eight-year study. It was decided not to limit this plan to the few classes in the experiment but to use the entire school for its scope. The pupil-teacher-parent groups were highly in favor of making this an integral part of the home room program. This gave rise to the core program which was a combination of the home room and the Aiken group experiment. The core classes were built around the English and social studies classes. The work covered a two period program daily for two years, or four semesters. One of the classes, sometimes English and at other times the social studies class, acted as the home room for the group. In this basic class the entire program of the individual was integrated. He was studied as an individual from the point of view of his whole growth. That is, he was thought of as an individual taking his part in a social world dependent upon a cultural heritage and a cultural development to supplement his vocational work for a livelihood. Teacher-pupil-parent planned together in the endeavor to fit each student emotionally, vocationally, religiously, socially, and economically for the task of being a better American citizen.

At this stage of the plan, parent participation was further developed through the medium of a letter with an occasional visitation. The teacher would write to the parents of his core group, if he was the home room teacher, telling of the achievements and the weaknesses of the son-student in whom they were jointly interested. The parents in turn would write back on the same letter giving any suggestions they had to enhance this relationship and growth. In this way the felt needs of the students were better met. After two years of this core program the teachers and principal planned to make it a whole school affair rather than confine it to social studies and

English. Thus, the teachers met at a workshop at Colorado Women's College during the summer to work out the plan for general education that had grown out of the core setup. Each teacher and administrator planned for general education in the same way that they planned the units with the students. It was a plan of teacher-teacher-administrator cooperation for the purpose of enhancing the relationship in the *home room*.

Coordinators were appointed to hold the general education groups together. These coordinators were given counseling time to plan for a solidarity and understanding between the different general education groups throughout the school. It is their place to check the units being studied, speakers, trips, and films to be used, in an effort to prevent confusion and overuse of one section of the library and neglect of another section by the general education sections. Groups interested in some common project, such as vocational education are combined for this study. The office of the coordinators is the workshop and library of the general education sections as well. It is furnished with book shelves, tables and comfortable chairs, and filing equipment. Many teacher-pupil and teacher-teacher meetings and conferences have met there. It is planned to continue this practice.

Since this has been a plan of normal development, as the preceding paragraphs show, teacher participation has shown a similar growth. If this system had been superimposed, it more than likely would have bogged down at this place. Of course, there have been several teachers who have not wished to participate, but sooner or later most have grown to appreciate the work. The assistant principal, who is responsible for teacher programs, gives every teacher an opportunity to volunteer for a general education section before program making. He then tries to give the teachers their choice of program, as nearly as it is possible, just as he gives the students their choice of studies. Thus, the teachers apply for general education classes and as quickly as enough new ones are inaugurated they are given to teachers according to the plan of first come first served.

General education is not patterned after any of the subject matter fields but is rather a real *home experience* where the students receive full guidance. It is believed that this sort of program is so vital that it should be given one full period a day for the entire school life of the student, and should give him six full semester units of credit toward graduation. In addition to general education, all beginning sophomores are asked to take one semester of diagnostic English, the purpose of which is to check with him the strengths and weaknesses he has in the use of his mother tongue. The English teacher makes suggestions of courses that will help the student most. He and his parents then either accept or reject these suggestions as they wish. Other than

² Mr. John J. Cory, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, was the principal of South High School during the first part of the inauguration of this program. Mr. Peter C. Holm, who succeeded him as principal eagerly carried on this progressive policy.

these two requirements the only further requirement made by the school for graduation is one semester of American history, and two semesters of physical education.

General education is not intended to be just another addition to the curriculum. It, as has been said, was a natural growth of the vital concepts of guidance from the home room, the Aiken Plan, and the core setup to a natural combination of all of these for the purpose of giving to every pupil guidance to help him develop himself in all his powers which would fit him better as an integrated personality. Through study in general education and making possible actual experience in the cooperative spirit of living with others, it is hoped to allow and stimulate each pupil to attain his maximum growth.

The teachers, in committee meetings, developed a guide called "Hints and Helps" to aid the general education teachers build units with their class. These are merely suggestive and not a course of study. The pupils and teachers may use them as they see fit. It is, as the title suggests, a book of hints and helps, giving briefs of subjects which might be developed into units by the various sections of general education. The students work out each unit they desire with the teacher in teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil planning. This gives them the experience of actually building their unit and seeing what it really involves. It also teaches them the valuable concept of cooperation with their fellows in a social situation, and to assume responsibility. One of the best ways to illustrate how this was made into an actual experience is to quote the statement of one of my students following a two day period when they were left on their own while I was at a study conference: "We did our work well, and I may add that those who sometimes are slow to come to order when you are here were quicker to settle down when you were gone." This statement came from a boy in one of my groups, who was the leader of this particular unit that was being studied on the days that I was absent. He was well pleased with the success of the group to do well on their own. Several such cases could be related to show that these students were actually getting the experience of assuming responsibility. They were learning by doing.

Let us consider briefly how the needs of the students are considered in this plan. The first need, it seems to us, is that of orientation to a new home. In order to meet this need more completely we go back into the life development of the individuals we are to have. This is made possible by the records from contributing schools. The junior high schools keep a cumulative and anecdotal record for each student which is sent to the senior high school. Thus we have given to us a rather complete picture of the student so that we can plan to orient him to a new phase of his learning procedure. With this background of the nature of our students we can best build a plan to help

them. Some of the older boys and girls from South visit the contributing junior high schools and invite the students to become members of South. The first day they are introduced to the student body officers, coaches, class sponsors, and school administrators. A group of Safety Council boys then directs them to their home room, which is their general education section.

The first unit is an orientation unit. Each student is given a handbook called "Southern Customs," which depicts all the customs of good southerners from the social and cultural points of view. It has in it the school songs and yells. It describes the clubs and tells of their sponsors. It directs the new students to the coach of the particular sport in which they are interested. It contains the floor plan of the building and a brief explanation of the architecture. After a discussion of the handbook and a brief study of the customs, the students make a tour of the building and see for themselves the school plant and its architecture, art work, and grounds. The general education sections then have a group meeting where the writer depicts for them the fascinating story of the historic Christian type of architecture from which South High School was designed. This is made more vivid by showing slides of the cathedrals from which the building was planned and then showing a replica of it. Each cornice and bit of fresco has a story behind it. This picturization stimulates the students to a better appreciation of their new home. We keep in mind that this is only the beginning of orientation and try to study the needs of each pupil as we live together in this general enterprise.

The other needs of the students are studied and met in a similar manner but it will suffice here to list a few of the things we consider and work on through our plan of pupil-pupil, teacher-pupil, teacher-parent cooperation. They are such things as individual guidance for the development of personality and other factors of sociability, vocational guidance, program planning, avocational planning, hobbies, and experience in civic problems through participation in student government. Constantly we apply the principle that the best education we can give is that in which the privilege of sharing the entire growing creative life of the school is vested in the pupil, teacher, advisers, and administrators.

This, in essence, is the nature of the general education plan at South High School. It should be remembered that it has grown out of our own experiences. No part of it has been superimposed. No teacher is forced to take a part in teaching it unless he has the desire to do so. If, by chance, a student gets into a section where there is a personality clash that is seemingly uncontrollable, he will be transferred to another section. Otherwise all students remain in the same section where they start and learn to appreciate one another in an intimate social relationship. This class

is in truth the *home* room for the student while he is at South.

The many offices and projects with which he is associated will teach him through his own personal experiences, fitting him for a richer and more complete adult life. He will pursue the type of course that can best be arranged for him considering his own individuality. He will be prepared for college preparatory work if in his case that seems to be the better plan for him to follow. Or, in other cases, he is given a start in successful vocational work or home-making.

The system is not perfect but is really wholesome. The students who were under this plan and have attended colleges have measured well with the students matched against them who followed the traditional type of training. Our seniors measured high last spring in a comprehensive subject matter test in all subject fields. General education improved the future citizenry in our charge. We believe that this type of education and guidance will continue to be valuable in the building of the youth who attend South High School.

Activity Project in History: The Chronological Chart

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A victim of early history methods—but who likes the subject nevertheless—offers suggestions.

Moral: Don't require pupils to *learn* dates! Give them an opportunity to *use* them.

Teachers who have trouble in remembering dates in history may appreciate knowing how to interest pupils in a worth-while project, which ought to prove a painless method of improving their own deficiency. Not only the amateur history instructor, but also the very best chronologist is likely to be confused at times regarding the time or place of some important happening and a glance at a good historical chart will prove a valuable means of regaining a proper perspective.¹

Such a chart or poster should be large and the events listed should be written or printed clearly. The events may be listed in one column or two, or even three. It is posted in a conspicuous place in the school-room and pupils are encouraged to use it, even during examinations. Most important: It must be the work of the pupils.

However, the project outlined here is not to be considered a means for "stuffing both teacher and pupil with dates, for whatever history teachers may think about having pupils learn the "when" of isolated events, there is no doubt that a great majority will agree that the "why" is of much more importance. Since a historical outline may require considerable research with the expenditure of much time, the objection may be made that it would not be worth while. To answer such objection one must include the

"why" of each event, and that is the part that does not shown on the chart to any considerable degree; unless this *does* form a considerable part of the class activity, however, the work of making up a historical chart may be for the most part wasted effort. In deciding *why* a proposed item should or should not be placed in the poster, the opinions of the pupils are to be respected, even if something quite important has to be omitted. Of course the teacher as well as each pupil retains the privilege of making his own individual chart or poster.

Teacher-activity is always needed, of course, to motivate any long-range project, and the third column of the chart will probably be largely the work of the teacher. In this column the significance or importance of items cited in the two first columns, is indicated. Since space in each list is much limited, it is suggested that a card file be used to give this information. In the third column, if a third column is included, a number may be inserted that corresponds with the number of a card in the file. On this card should be written further details about the two events cited in the first two columns, one side of the card being used for each. If there is too much material to type on the card, an exact reference to source may also be included on the card. These cards, neatly written or typed by the teacher, will compose a very valuable store of information. Some of the pupils may become so interested, that they will want to have individual card files and these may easily be secured, as they are inexpensive.

It is thus seen that an immense amount of work may be expended on such an historical chart, if one becomes interested in it, or it may be carried on as an incidental part of the social studies without requiring much extra time. Following is a part of an outline which was worked out by a student. The object in it

¹Note: An invaluable aid in a project of this kind is the Karl Poetz *Manual of Universal History*, translated and enlarged by William H. Tillinghast, and revised under the editorship of Harry Elmer Barnes (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1925). The very complete index of this volume enables it to "serve as an historical dictionary, as well as a chronology."

was to include important educational events and at the same time to cite other happenings of similar chronology. Naturally some of these items would be omitted by another student and different ones included; as there is so much material from which to choose.

EDUCATION

- 1802 West Point began technical education in the United States.
- 1804 Pestalozzi's Institute of Yverdon.
- 1806 First Lancastrian School, New York.
- 1810 University of Berlin founded.
- 1810-1830 Semi-private philanthropic societies in United States.
- 1818 First infant school, Boston.
- 1819 Dartmouth College Decision. University of Virginia founded as state university.
- 1821 First American high school.
- 1821 Troy Seminary, E. Willard; first higher education for women in United States.
- 1826 Froebel's "The Education of Man."
- 1832 Boston and New York began education of the blind.
- 1833 First government aid to schools in England.
- 1834 Free School Act, Pennsylvania, optional.
- 1836 Mount Holyoke for women—Mary Lyon.
- 1837 Reforms to raise school standards, Horace Mann.
- 1839 First Normal School in United States—Lexington, Massachusetts.
- 1855 First kindergarten in United States—German.
- 1860 Development of state university. First public kindergarten in United States.
- 1862 Morrill Land-Grant College Act.
- 1867 First United States Commissioner of Education—Henry Barnard.
- 1868 Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute—Negroes.
- 1869 Endowed School Act—secondary education under state support.
- 1876 Manual training first introduced in United States.
- 1879 First medical inspection—France. First in United States, 1894.
- 1887 Hatch Act—For agricultural experiment stations.
- 1888 Teachers College—Harvard.
- 1908 Harvard School of Business founded.
- 1909 First junior high school. First classes for speech defectives, New York.
- 1910 First Junior College, Fresno, California.
- 1911 Carnegie Education Corporation, New York, Rockefeller General Education Board.
- 1912 China—Modernization of schools.
- 1914 Smith-Lever Act—encourage agriculture in United States.
- 1917 Smith-Hughes Act—vocational education in the United States.
- 1918 Fisher Act—English schools organized.
- 1919 Reform of school organization in Germany.
- 1934 John W. Studebaker appointed Commissioner of Education.
- 1937 Civilian Conservation Corps started.
- 1941 New National Gallery of Art, Washington, D.C.
- 1942 "School Life" became "Education for Victory."

While working on the chart the pupils may have their curiosity piqued by remarks from the teacher that there are several interesting activities and games that may be worked out later on in connection with this history project. Many dramatizations will be found feasible, no matter whether the school is a rural with a few pupils or a part of a large city system. The rural school has quite an advantage in dramatizing because pupils of different ages are available to represent both old and young in the plays.

The "where" game may be played by choosing up

sides; one pupil names an event on the chart and his opponent is required to tell where it happened.

An activity that might grow out of this project might be the work of making a game: *Presidents of the Nineteenth Century*. This can be made very similar to the common game of "Authors." In the latter

HISTORY

- 1800 Capital moved to Washington.
- 1803 Louisiana Purchase, \$15,000,000.
- 1811 Trading posts established among Indians.
- 1812 War of 1812 against Great Britain. Napoleon against Russia.
- 1815 Treaty of Peace after Battle of Waterloo.
- 1819 Florida Purchase from Spain.
- 1820 Missouri Compromise.
- 1823 Monroe Doctrine.
- 1827 First Railroad in United States.
- 1846 Mexican War, Wilmot Proviso.
- 1849 Gold rush in California.
- 1854 Kansas-Nebraska Bill.
- 1857 Dred Scott Decision.
- 1861 Abraham Lincoln, President. Secession.
- 1863 Emancipation Proclamation.
- 1867 Purchase of Alaska, \$7,200,000.
- 1870 First Railroad to cross continent in United States.
- 1873 Financial panic.
- 1889 First Pan-American Congress.
- 1893 Treaty annexing Hawaii.
- 1898 Spanish-American War; Treaty of Paris; Puerto Rico and Philippines.
- 1906 Pure Food and Drug Act, public health safeguard.
- 1907 Financial panic. Boy Scout program began in England.
- 1910 Postal Savings Bank established.
- 1911 Boy Scout program began in United States.
- 1914 United States proclaimed neutrality in World War I. Panama Canal officially opened.
- 1917 United States entered World War I.
- 1918 Armistice signed.
- 1919 Treaty of Versailles. League of Nations started. First meeting, 1920.
- 1920 Nineteenth Amendment, woman suffrage.
- 1927 Lindbergh flew alone to Paris.
- 1929 Kellogg-Briand Treaty, outlawing war.
- 1931 Severe business depression.
- 1933 Gold standard suspended.
- 1935 NRA codes unconstitutional. Social Security Act.
- 1936 AAA codes unconstitutional. Supreme Court Controversy. Olympic games—Berlin. Italian annexation of Ethiopia.
- 1940 F. D. Roosevelt elected for a third term. Selective Service Act, first peace-time military draft.
- 1941 Dec. 7—Pearl Harbor attacked. United States enters World War II.
- 1942 Grand Coulee Dam began operating.

game four cards are used for each author which form a set or "book"; on each of these cards the author's name appears and four of his most important works, these being repeated on each card but in different order. The object of the game is to acquire as many of the cards as possible by "calling" for them from other players from cards already in hand. The game of "Presidents" may be made very similar, with events of the various administrations taking the place of author's works. The dates of presidents' administrations and of events listed should appear on the card

but are not required to be learned.

Ingenious teachers and alert pupils will be able to devise many exercises and demonstrations, while they are working on the chart. At the present time boys are much interested in air transportation, and would like to have the opportunity of collecting pictures of different models and types of planes. Some might prefer to cover the whole field of transportation with pictures of a Greek runner, Arabian horseman, Roman galley, and the modern cargo plane. In preparation for these activities it is well for the teacher to have a supply of materials from which pupils may replenish their own meager stores, since their resources are often quite limited. Nevertheless, pupil ingenuity is remarkable after it is once stimulated into making a beginning. Particularly is this true in the field of dramatization, for in this field imagination helps to bridge many a chasm. The relaxation afforded is one of its greatest benefits; it is therefore a good antidote for drill, which is also valuable but may cause tension.²

Following are suggestions for the cards which make up a "book" for Lincoln's administration. These four cards are alike except that a different event heads the list on each card. The person "calling" refers to the lower captions on cards held and aims to get four cards of as many presidents as possible. In the exercise worked out by the author the aim has been to set down constructive items rather than destructive; dates of battles may be important, but are not necessarily of most importance.

Abraham Lincoln—16th President

March 4, 1861—April 15, 1865

1861—Emancipation Proclamation

1862—Morrill Act to aid agriculture and the mechanic arts

1865—Lincoln makes plans for reconstruction of the South

1865—13th Amendment—prohibiting slavery

² Note: Teachers who are eager to put vitamins into dry pedagogy should read A. Gordon Melvin's *The Activity Program* (New York: Reynal & Hitchcock, 1937), particularly Chapter V, "Organic School Life in Practice."

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1861—Emancipation Proclamation

1862—Morrill Act to aid agriculture and the mechanic arts

Since repetition is the basis of habit formation, provision must be made for considerable practice and drill; games and contests will provide the repetition and, if the pupils help prepare the games, they will be doubly benefited.

The teacher has been reminded so often of the need for the psychological approach, that forgetfulness of the logical summing-up may have resulted. Both must be included in the repertoire of the successful history instructor and the chronological chart is a tangible and effective instrument for developing and presenting events in their logical sequence.

The Sixth Grade Builds a Manor

MARGARET BUSCHOR

Milwaukee-Downer Seminary, Milwaukee, Wisconsin

"May we build a castle?"

"Oh, yes, and may we make a manor, too?"

"I have a castle we can use. I'll bring it this afternoon if you want me to."

Yes, we did want the castle, for we had just been reading about the part that castles played in medieval life and studying the diagram of a manor in Gertrude Hartmann's *Medieval Days and Ways*.

The class quickly organized itself into committees. One consulted Henry, the ever-resourceful janitor, about a platform on which to arrange the manor; others talked with the art teacher about available materials, decided where to place the platform in the room, and began making sketches of the manorial estate as it would be set up.

In the afternoon Louise brought her castle, a typical red-roofed medieval castle, two feet high, with a winding roadway leading up the hill on which it was built. Henry had found a platform six inches high and approximately three feet by four. We placed it in the center of the room with the girls' tables and chairs arranged around the floor space. One group set to work measuring and cutting heavy brown paper to the size of the platform. Everyone agreed on the placing of the castle. Then the girls drew in the moat, the lord's domain, the fields showing the three-field system then in use, and the serfs' village. At the same time the other group was busily at work making trees for the forests out of dried twigs and bits of green sponge, and shaping from clay wild animals for the hunting scene, horses for the knights and ladies, and finally the people themselves who would inhabit this manor.

"Does that look real, Lornie?"

"Where's some brown cloth for this serf's tunic?"

"Let's have a tournament about to take place and have all the people riding up to the castle where the lord and lady of the manor are waiting to receive them."

"Make the water in the moat bluer, Polly."

"Look! I made a Maypole for the serfs to be dancing around on the village green."

And so the tongues and fingers moved together until in surprisingly short order a manorial estate, complete in every detail, was the center of interest in the sixth form room. It was amazing how long it held the children's interest—they would rearrange the figures or add some new touch from day to day.

Then one day the children suggested naming the manor and selecting names for the people living within its turreted walls. Some were even eager to write a play. So after deciding to call it Kimberly Manor

and selecting names for the occupants, those who wanted to write a story formed themselves into one group and the would-be playwrights, into another. Each chose its own chairman. The groups then met by themselves without any supervision from me and were given time each day for their writing.

The play group completed its play first and asked if they might give it for the whole class the following week in the library. They brought from home enough properties and costume accessories to suggest the medieval atmosphere of their play, not even neglecting food for the luncheon scene in the garden and a marvelous hobby-horse stick for the young knight to make his entrance upon in the first scene.

The story group agreed upon the plot and characters of their story, and the chairman assigned each child one chapter to write. She corrected the work but asked me to check it with her. The girls of their own volition decided that the finished story would look neater if one girl did all the copying. They chose Barbara, whose writing they considered the most legible and attractive. They designated Louise, whose artistic skill was unquestioned, to do the cover design and illustrations. Using white cardboard, they made their own cover, had Louise paint the design, and then helped her glue on pearls and red beads to complete the decoration. The carefully copied pages and gaily colored illustrations were put between the book covers and tied with red satin ribbon.

At the children's request a special time was set aside for them to show their work to the class and to read aloud their story. To my surprise the book contained a dedicatory page to me. At the conclusion of the reading the book was very formally presented to me "for keeps."

Our study of castle and manor life was one part of our year's study of the medieval period. Allowing time for these projects not only made the past alive for the children, but linked together many phases of their academic, artistic, and social living. History, creative writing, art and design, as well as the ability to work in groups, to make decisions, to express originality, and to show leadership were merged.

Illustrative Materials for the Classroom

FLORENCE BERND¹

Director, Teachers' Materials Bureau, Macon, Georgia

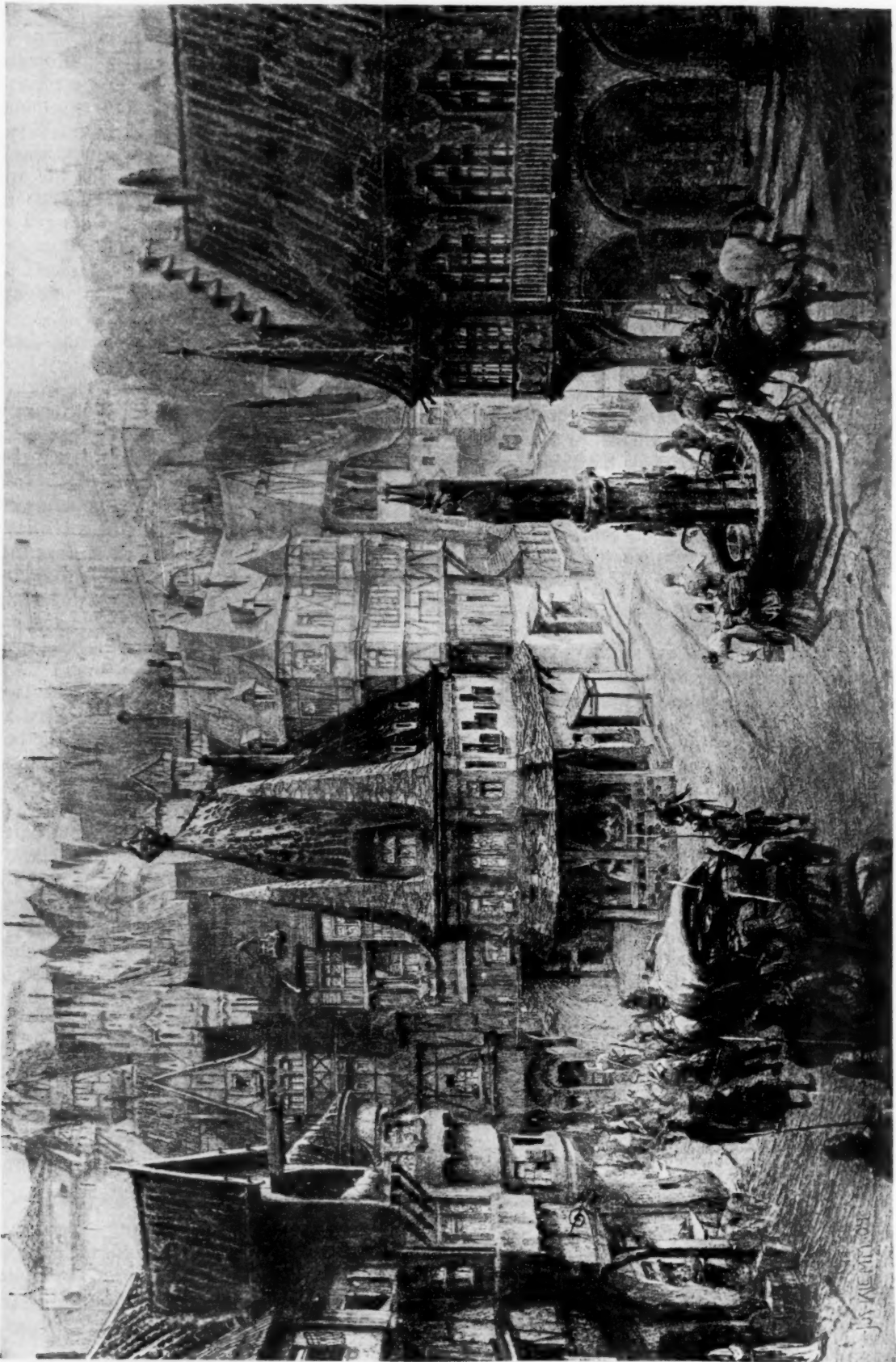
In offering this series of articles combining source material, music and art, there has been a fourfold purpose:

1. To give access to illustrative material not easily

¹ Deceased.

obtainable by the vast army of social studies teachers in the rural sections and smaller towns and cities where library facilities are limited.

2. To provide an opportunity for cooperative contributions by members of the class and also of



A FIFTEENTH CENTURY TOWN

the music and art departments. With this in view, one group may give a report on the worthiness of the source, another group may present an explanation of the picture in relation to the source as a basis for discussion, while a third may be responsible for an account of the origin of the music and its value.

3. To impress upon young minds the basic fact that this world's progress and culture stem from many lands and ages—a Roman Pope, a German reformer, an English chronicler, king and commoner of many diverse creeds and callings.
4. To open up ever widening horizons that may lead boys and girls to find within themselves some measure of contentment to counterbalance the feverish dependence on externals in today's distraught world.

Only the simplest music has been offered in order that it may be within the range of the young. This may be richly supplemented in many cases by the use of Victrola records, though nothing can take the place of student participation.

It may be said that this is no untried plan. It was used over a long period with ninth grade boys to whom one might doubt its appeal, but on the contrary and perhaps a bit disconcerting to the teacher, it is a fact that after many years, these boys, grown into mature men, have remembered the music and the picture and the contents of the source, when they have forgotten the name of the textbook.

THE MEDIEVAL GUILD²

Articles of the Spurriers of London

Be it remembered, that on Tuesday, the morrow of St. Peter's bonds, in the nineteenth year of the reign of King Edward III, the articles underwritten were read before John Hammond, mayor, Roger de Depham, recorder and the other aldermen; and seeing that the same were deemed befitting, they were accepted and enrolled in these words.

In the first place, that no one of the trade of spurriers shall work longer than from the beginning of the day until curfew rings out at the church of St. Sepulcher, without Newgate; by reason that no man can work so neatly by night as by day. And many persons of the said trade, who compass how to practice deception in their work, desire to work by night rather than by day; and then they introduce false iron and iron that has been cracked, for tin, and also they put gilt on false copper, and cracked.

And further, many of the said trade are wandering about all day, without working at all at their trade; and then, when they have become drunk and frantic, they take to their work, to the annoyance of

the sick, and all their neighborhood as well, by reason of the broils that arise between them and the strange folk who are dwelling among them. And then they blow up their fires so vigorously, that their forges begin all at once to blaze, to the great peril of themselves and of all the neighborhood around. And then, too, all the neighbors are in much dread of the sparks, which so vigorously issue forth in all directions from the mouths of the chimneys in the forges.

By reason thereof it seems unto them that working by night should be put an end to, in order to avoid such false work and such perils; and therefore the mayor and the aldermen do will, by the assent of the good folk of the said trade and for the common profit, that from henceforth such time for working, and such false work made in the trade, shall be forbidden. And if any person shall be found in the said trade to do the contrary hereof, let him be amerced, the first time in forty pence, one half to go to the use of the Chamber of the Guildhall of London, and the other half to the use of the said trade; the second time, in half a mark; and the third time, in ten shillings, to the use of the same Chamber and trade; and the fourth time, let him forswear the trade forever.

Also, that no one of the said trade, shall hang his spurs out on Sundays, or on any other days that are double feasts; but only a sign indicating his business, and such spurs as they shall so sell, they are to show and sell within their shops, without exposing them without or opening the doors or the windows of their shops, on the pain aforesaid.

Also, that no one of the said trade shall keep a house or shop to carry on his business, unless he is free of the city; and that no one shall cause to be sold, or exposed for sale, any manner of old spurs for new ones, or shall garnish them or change them for new ones. Also, that no one of the said trade shall take an apprentice for a less term than seven years, and such apprentice shall be enrolled according to the usages of the said city.

Also, if any one of the said trade, who is not a freeman, shall take an apprentice for a term of years, he shall be amerced as aforesaid. Also, that no one of the said trade shall receive the apprentice, serving man, or journeyman of another in the same trade, during the term agreed upon between his master and him, on the pain aforesaid.

Also, that no alien of another country, or foreigner of this country, shall follow or use the said trade, unless he is enfranchised before the mayor, aldermen, and chamberlain; and that, by witness and surety of the good folk of the said trade, who will go surety for him, as to his loyalty and good behavior.

Also, that no one of the said trade shall work on Saturdays, after *nones* has been rung out in the city; and not from that hour until the Monday morning following.

² J. H. Robinson, *Readings in European History*, I (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1904), 409-412.

Rules of the Guild of Whitetawyers

(Those who dressed leather in such a way as to give it a white surface.)

In honor of God, our Lady, and of All Saints, and for the nurture of tranquillity and peace among the good folk, the Megucers, called whitetawyers, the folk of the same trade have, by assent of Richard Lacer, mayor, and of the Aldermen, ordained the points underwritten.

In the first place, they have ordained that they will furnish a wax candle, to burn before our Lady, in the church of Allhallows, near London wall.

Also, that each person of said trade shall put in the box such sum as he shall think fit, in aid of maintaining the said candle.

Also, if by chance any of the said trade shall fall into poverty, whether through old age or because he cannot labor or work, and shall have nothing with

which to keep himself, he shall have every week from the said box seven pence for his support, if he be a man of good repute. And after his decease, if he have a wife, a woman of good repute, she shall have weekly for her support seven pence from the said box for her support so long as she shall behave herself well and keep single.

And if anyone of the said trade shall have work in his house that he cannot complete, or if for want of assistance such work shall be in danger of being lost, those of the said trade shall aid him, so that the said work be not lost.

And if any one of the said trade shall depart this life, and have not withal to be buried, he shall be buried at the expense of the common box. And when any of the said trade shall die, all those of the said trade shall go to the vigil, and make offering on the morrow.

The Unpublished Papers of Frederick Jackson Turner

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Frederick Jackson Turner, the great American pioneer historian, upon his death, March 14, 1932, bequeathed his unpublished papers to the Henry E. Huntington Library, San Marino, California.¹ In November, 1942, that library granted the writer the privilege of perusing them for the purpose of writing a treatise on their importance to the trends of American history today. The permission to do this was granted because the writer had been a student of his while attending Radcliffe College, where he also taught while he was a professor at Harvard University.

So far my study of these papers is by no means complete for there are sixteen large drawers of them. However, it has gone along far enough so that some definite trends may be seen that should be emphasized in my treatise. They are: (1) the valuable unpublished essays that should be in print; (2) the critical analyses of former and contemporary writers in regard to historical inaccuracies that should be noted; and (3) the Turner approach to materials usually included in American history.

In his early syllabus, which this American historian used while teaching at the University of Wisconsin, he approached the study of United States history

chronologically.² Later, however, he adopted a different treatment. He first discussed the New England frontier, and as that frontier expanded historically and touched the culture of other English colonies and those of Spain, France, Holland and Sweden, he made research into them. Then he followed the trek of the frontier as it moved westward to the Pacific Ocean, considering the problems as they geographically, politically, socially and economically came into importance.

It is in this order that his notes are arranged at Huntington Library. Therefore, they might be somewhat confusing to those unfamiliar to his methods. However, to a student of his they are comprehensible and familiar.

In his historical research, Turner applied a microscopic examination only to limited regions and periods. Therefore, there are great gaps in the continuity of these notes. However, those regions and periods that he did study were replete not only with outlines, maps, charts and notes, but also with critical analyses of the use of documents as to their accuracy, value and interpretation. Turner was ever a questioner. He was always curious. He took nothing for granted. On account of this inquisitiveness he

¹ "Frederick Jackson Turner," *Dictionary of American Biography*, XIX, 62-64.

² F. J. Turner, *The Colonization of North America from Earliest Times to 1763* (University of Wisconsin, 1894), pp. 1-16.

has ferreted out and has deposited in his unpublished notes, items of value, which have hitherto been stated inaccurately by many historians of repute. But, it is sad to relate, that such constructive criticism has not yet been allowed to come into print.

This leads to the third point of value to be found in these papers. These are his unpublished essays. They are on many topics, having been written by him for sundry and various occasions. Each one is unique in itself, showing his idiosyncrasy in terminology and his individual influence on the socio-economic interpretation of the history of the United States. Many of these unpublished essays are gems of value that would make most interesting reading for history students, due to the fact that they show his own unusual trend and his critical weighing of historical data.

Such is the content of the papers that he has left posterity at the Huntington Library. He, who was born on the frontier, at Portage, Wisconsin, of New England stock, on November 14, 1861, went a long way historically and culturally when he placed his emphasis on the significance of the American frontier in the history of the United States. He may have learned the method of historical research from Dr. Herbert B. Adams at Johns Hopkins University, where he received his Ph.D. degree in 1893, but the content of his course was his own. His perspective on American history he had acquired in his frontier youth in Wisconsin, and through his undergraduate and graduate days at the University of Wisconsin. Then he had been privileged to try out his ideas at his Alma Mater, for he taught there over twenty-

five years, before he was called to a chair at Harvard.³

His hypothesis was that American history was based at the "hither edge" of free land. He considered it a series of frontiers—that is, the frontier of the discoverer, explorer, missionary, soldier and trapper, and that the last frontier terminated about 1890. But on the other hand, he inadvertently predicted for the United States a future different from the past, where the important role would be played not only by topography and natural resources, but also by racial components of people, industry, labor and agriculture.

He published little in his lifetime in comparison to the prodigious amount of research he accumulated. His entire time was devoted to this latter pursuit and to the teaching of his students. Even in the sunset of his teaching days, he corrected all their papers himself. Each scholar received back the historical report he had created for class work with Turner's criticisms upon it in his own handwriting. Therefore these unpublished notes at the Huntington Library are the productive efforts of Frederick Jackson Turner.

Such was the nature of this great teacher of American history, who could not only inspire devotion, but could also magnetize others to do creative historical research in the field of United States history. It was indeed a privilege to study under him. It is a labor of love to peruse his unpublished papers so that the story may be written about their contents, trends and constructive historical criticisms.

³ Max Farrand, *Frederick Jackson Turner, A Memoir*, pp. 5-7.

Twelve Continental Presidents

E. LEIGH MUDGE

State Teachers College, Edinboro, Pennsylvania

In 1777, the Continental Congress framed the Articles of Confederation, that were finally put into force in 1781. From that time until the adoption of the federal Constitution whatever government there was for the entire thirteen states was in the hands of the Continental Congress, a body that had been established before the beginning of the Revolutionary War.

In those days there was no separate executive—all executive functions were held by the entire Congress—but a succession of notable men served as presidents of the Continental Congress and may be considered to have occupied the chief office of the land. In giving honor to the long line of presidents of the United States we should not forget twelve notable men who prepared the way, like the seven kings of Rome, for the greater days to come. These are the presidents who served after the presentation

to the states of the Articles of Confederation in 1777.

As we observe the lives of these early heads of the American government, we must be impressed with their unusual training, their breadth of vision, and their outstanding character. Most of them had names long familiar in the honorable records of Great Britain. All were among the notable leaders of a remarkable succession of our early American statesmen.

South Carolina provided the first of these. He was Henry Laurens, educated in England and engaged in the mercantile business and later in farming. After his term in the presidency he was made Minister to Holland, was captured on his way to his new post and held for fifteen months as a prisoner in the Tower of London.

John Jay was a New Yorker, a graduate of Columbia College and a lawyer. He served as Minister

to Spain, and was one of the negotiators of peace with Great Britain. He was the first Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, from which he resigned in 1795. He served as Governor of New York and Envoy to Great Britain, and declined a reappointment as Chief Justice, which is perhaps a unique distinction.

Samuel Huntington of Connecticut was another lawyer. After his term as president of Congress he held several important Connecticut offices and died in 1847, while he was serving as Governor.

Thomas McKean represented Delaware, where he practiced law at New Castle. When he became the president of Congress he had served as Chief Justice of Pennsylvania, of which state he was later governor.

Perhaps the chief distinction of John Hanson of Maryland, the first president of Congress after the Articles went into effect in 1781, is that it fell to him to give to General Washington the thanks of Congress for the victory of Yorktown.

Another of the keen-minded and faithful lawyers was Elias Boudinot of New Jersey. He served as Commissary General of prisoners in the Revolution, signed the treaty of peace with England, and later served as Director of the Mint.

Thomas Mifflin was one of the most notable among the brilliant group of Pennsylvania's founding fathers. A graduate of the University of Pennsylvania, he became a trustee of that institution and was a member of the American Philosophical Society, one of our national monuments to the great Franklin. During the Revolution, Mifflin served in the army, rising to the rank of major general. He was known as a wise statesman and occupied many posts of honor in the government of his state and nation.

Virginia furnished to the young union of republics one of the greatest of a famous family—Richard Henry Lee. Two notable distinctions were his: he drafted the Articles of Confederation and he presented the original resolution that was formally drafted as the Declaration of Independence. Soon

after the completion of his education in England he began his long career as a statesman. His final service was in the United States Senate.

John Hancock, another Harvard man, famous for his bold signature as the first signer of the Declaration of Independence, gave his country notable service as a major-general of militia and as a statesman. He had previously served as president of the Congress before the Articles of Confederation, and was again elected in 1785. Under this second election he never served, resigning within a year because of illness.

Another Massachusetts man, Nathaniel Gorham, succeeded Hancock. Gorham was a merchant who served in various public capacities. Late in life he was active in the purchase and settlement of lands in the Genesee Valley in New York.

Arthur St. Clair, one of Pennsylvania's generals, was a native of Scotland and a graduate of the University of Edinburgh. He served as a British officer in the French and Indian War, settled in western Pennsylvania, and in the Revolution was second to Anthony Wayne in the Pennsylvania Line. In 1789 he became Governor of the Northwest Territory, retiring in 1802 to a Pennsylvania farm.

The last of these twelve worthies was Cyrus Griffin of Virginia. He was educated in England and was a prominent leader in all the activities of Virginia before the Revolution. Later he held several federal posts and at the time of his death was a judge of a federal court.

These men were representative of the early founders and leaders of our American republic. They were not crude and ignorant frontiersmen but were men of education and experience. Most of them were educated in European or American universities. Only as we know these things can we account for the fact that such early Americans produced some of the most practical as well as progressive constitutional documents that the world has ever known.

Answers to Geographic Games and Tests

G 51. NORTH AMERICA—YES OR NO?

1—For Alaska the fisheries have a value greater than all of the products from the land; 2—The chief natural handicap of Canada is cold; of Mexico, drought; 3—The *Soo Canal* is much used for the iron ore shipments from the Lake Superior District; 4—Montreal is nearer to England than is New York, but the former is icebound several months of the year; 5—*Sisal* for binder twine and *chicle* for chewing gum are obtained from Mexico; 6—The most important crop of Canada is wheat; of Mexico, corn; of the U.S., corn; 7—The St. Lawrence River is used by ships *during* the *summer*; 8—The Columbia is a great salmon stream; Chesapeake Bay is noted for oysters; the Grand Banks are famous for cod; and the Pribilof Islands, for fur seals; 9—The Prairie Provinces of Canada are one of the world's famous spring wheat regions; 10—North America ranks first among the continents in coal reserves; 11—Most of Canada's population is near the U.S. border; that of Mexico is far from her U.S. border; 12—The principal gateway for Canadian foreign trade is the

Great Lakes-St. Lawrence Valley; 13—The chief power production in Canada is from *water*; in the U.S., from *coal*; and in Mexico, from *oil*; 14—The population of Central America is located mainly upon the plateaus; 15—The *Prairie Provinces* are one of Canada's most important agricultural regions; 16—The most important traffic through the Panama Canal is that between the eastern and western coasts of the U.S.; 17—Of the Atlantic and Pacific coasts of North America, the *latter* is much more ice free than is the *former*; 18—Canada is about the same size as the United States including Alaska; 19—The Pacific Coast of Canada and Alaska is much indented but has few important harbors; 20—Navigation on Hudson Bay is handicapped by ice much of the year.

G 52. WHYS IN ASIA

1—As a sanitary precaution; 2—Cheaper than meat; 3—Cheap substitute for meat; 4—Coal is unavailable to masses; 5—Japan is insular and in good fishing area. India is more continental; 6—Economical; 7—Little coal or wood available; 8—Nomadic life, many sheep and poor transportation—all lend themselves to rug making; 9—Food is scarce; 10—Highly intensive; good market; 11—For better ventilation during the hot season; 12—Man power is cheap and such vehicles can go through crooked, narrow streets; 13—Large size so can force way through jungle and can feed on jungle vegetation; 14—Uses hand or wind power which is cheap; 15—Available and cheap; 16—Depends on availability; 17—Preserves in hot climate where refrigeration is lacking; 18—Expensive compared with vegetable oils; 19—Jewelry represents savings; 20—Caste rules.

G 53. ASIA—IS IT TRUE?

1—The monsoon blowing onto southeastern Asia in *summer* brings much rain to that region; 2—Shanghai, at the mouth of the *Yangtze* is one of the great ports of China; 3—The chief export of Japan is *raw* silk goods; 4—The *rice* of India is grown on the delta and flood plain of the Ganges; 5—The Yangtze is one of the world's great rivers and the most useful of China's large streams; 6—The Arabian Sea lies between India and *Arabia*; 7—Chinese farmers as a rule have small farms but get large yields per acre as compared with those of the United States; 8—Ceylon, an island near the tip of India, is noted for its large production of *tea*; 9—The population of Asia is much more unevenly distributed than is that of Europe; 10—Most of the people of Asia are farmers producing food rather than raw materials for industry; 11—The largest plains of Asia are in the north and northwest, but the most productive agricultural land is in the south and east; 12—Calcutta, the capital of India, is located near the mouth of the Ganges; 13—India has far more cattle than has the United States, yet uses little meat; 14—The plateau near Bombay is a great cotton-growing district; 15—*Rice* is the most important grain of the Far East; 16—With such a dense population to feed Japan naturally has *all possible* of surface under cultivation; 17—The coldest place in Asia is naturally in *northeastern Siberia*; 18—Southeastern Asia and adjacent islands produce the bulk of the world's tin, rubber and copra; 19—The great natural handicap of southwestern Asia is aridity; 20—The Khyber Pass joins India with Afghanistan.

G 54. ASIATIC NUTS TO CRACK

1—It seems (1) more refined to them and (2) more economical; 2—Religion forbids their use; 3—(1) Cheaper labor, (2) more accessible to coast, (3) more stable government in the latter region; 4—Hindu religion holds cattle sacred. Mostly a beast of burden there; 5—Maximum yields from expensive land sought at expense of cheap labor; 6—Rayon and nylon; 7—Law forbids its use as a national menace; 8—India is not united, therefore is weak; 9—China is not united; 10—Caste system restricts activities; 11—Country is economically backward; 12—Laboratory product now competes.

G 55. AFRICA—IS IT TRUE?

1—Among the continents Africa is characterized by a *high* average elevation; 2—At the extreme northern and southern extremities the continent is too *dry*; in the central part, too *wet*; 3—The large rivers of the continent are naturally *poorly* suited for navigation; 4—The coastline of Africa is notably *regular*, affording *few* good natural harbors; 5—The north African coast gets most of its rainfall in winter; 6—The Sahara is about the same size as the United States; 7—Africa is the only continent which is practically cut in half by the equator; 8—Cape Town in July is having its winter season and its rainy period; 9—The Nile, unlike most rivers, decreases in volume as one approaches its mouth; 10—The *diamonds* from near Kimberley and the *gold* from near Johannesburg are valuable assets of South Africa; 11—The Gold Coast is the world's chief source of cacao; 12—The Congo and its tributaries possess more potential water power than any other river system in the world; 13—South Africa is handicapped by a small and rather uncertain rainfall; 14—

The Suez Canal saves *less* distance for shipping between England and Australia than for that between England and India; 15—Africa is the only continent whose largest city is not a seaport; 16—The great commercial crop of Egypt is cotton; 17—Ships discharging cargo at Cape Town are likely to have to leave in ballast; 18—The Sahara is one of the great trade wind deserts; 19—As compared with the Amazon, the Congo is *less* suited for navigation; 20—The Congo region has a small annual range of temperature, but a very heavy rainfall.

G 56. AFRICA—THE RAW MATERIAL CONTINENT

1—Chromium steel, Rhodesia; 2—Soap, Nigeria; 3—Best cotton cloth, Nile Valley; 4—Mohair, South Africa; 5—Cocoa-chocolate, Gold Coast; 6—Ivory, Belgian Congo; 7—Tires, Belgian Congo; 8—Pencils, lubricants, crucibles, Madagascar; 9—Cut diamonds, South Africa, Angola, Belgium Congo; 10—Jewelry, The Rand, South Africa; 11—Fertilizer, North Africa; 12—Steel goods, North Africa; 13—Wire, Katanga, Belgian Congo, Northern Rhodesia; 14—Bottle stoppers, insulation, Morocco-Algeria; 15—Olive oil, North Africa; 16—Furniture, Belgian Congo; 17—Tapioca, Belgian Congo; 18—Leather, Sahara Border, South Africa; 19—Radium, Belgian Congo; 20—Binder twine, British East Africa.

G 57. SOME PLACE-NAMES IN THE THREE "A" CONTINENTS ASIA, AUSTRALIA AND AFRICA

1—Cape Verde; 2—Rio de Oro; 3—Transvaal; 4—Eritrea; 5—Sudan; 6—Kalahari; 7—Timbuktu (Tombouctou); 8—Chad; 9—Nile; 10—Gobi; 11—Hwang; 12—Hong Kong; 13—Colombo; 14—Benares; 15—Jordan; 16—Beirut; 17—Baikal; 18—Yenisei (Enesei); 19—New Zealand; 20—Antarctica; 21—Java.

G 58. AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND—IS IT TRUE?

1—Among all the inhabited continents, Australia is the most remote from the world's great commercial regions and the most sparsely populated; 2—As one goes north in that continent the climate naturally becomes *warmer*; 3—Because it is located in the southern hemisphere New Year's day will naturally come in the summer; 4—Off the northeast coast lies the Great Barrier Reef—a long chain of *coral* islands; 5—The large island of *New Zealand* lies to the southeast of the continent; 6—The rivers are few and small and are used more for irrigation than for navigation; 7—Over a considerable area of the continent the chief water supply is from artesian wells; 8—The capital of Australia is *an interior city*; 9—Australia has summer when we have winter, and daylight when it is night here; 10—In general the rainfall *decreases* as one goes inland from the coast; 11—The population is distributed *very unevenly* over the continent and is mostly of British ancestry; 12—Tasmania, located farther south, is naturally *colder* than is Australia; 13—Australian agriculture centers largely around the production of sheep and *cattle*; 14—New Zealand has a much higher per capita foreign trade than does the United States and the chief items exported are animal products; 15—The invention of refrigeration has made mutton the chief export item of *New Zealand*.

G 59. A VOYAGE OF DISCOVERY: FINDING SOME OF THE WORLD'S SEAS

1—Mediterranean; 2—Red; 3—Caspian; 4—Black; 5—Aegean; 6—Bering; 7—Caribbean; 8—Adriatic; 9—Baltic; 10—North; 11—Mamara; 12—Yellow; 13—Arabian; 14—South China; 15—Irish; 16—Sea of Japan; 17—East China Sea; 18—White; 19—Dead; 20—Tyrrhenian.

G 60. WHERE THE WATERS NARROW

1—Hudson; 2—Hormuz; 3—Panama; 4—Bosporus-Mamara-Dardanelles; 5—"Soo" (Sault Ste. Marie); 6—St. Clair River, St. Clair Lake, Detroit River; 7—Suez; 8—Magellan; 9—Skagerrak-Kattegat; 10—Dover; 11—Gibraltar; 12—Otranto; 13—Juan de Fuca; 14—Corinth; 15—Stalin (Baltic-White Sea).
1—Malacca; 2—Sunda; 3—Bass; 4—Cook; 5—Panama; 6—Florida; 7—Belle Isle; 8—Messina; 9—North Channel.

G 61. NAMES OF INTERESTING PLACES AND FEATURES OF THE WORLD (PART 1)

1—Argentina, Brazil, Chile; 2—Belgium; 3—Hawaii; 4—Africa; 5—California; 6—The South; 7—Ireland; 8—Nova Scotia; 9—Florida; 10—China; 11—Orient; 12—Germany; 13—Egypt; 14—Irak; 15—Colorado; 16—Newfoundland; 17—Chosen; 18—Palestine; 19—Peru; 20—Palestine; 21—Finland; 22—Ireland; 23—Turkey; 24—Norway; 25—Egypt; 26—Japan.

G 62. NAMES OF INTERESTING PLACES AND FEATURES OF THE WORLD (PART 2)

1—Siam (Thailand); 2—The Netherlands; 3—Australia; 4—The Netherlands—Belgium; 5—Eastern Mediterranean Lands; 6—Japan; 7—Western World; 8—Ireland; 9—Canada; 10—Argentina; 11—Java; 12—Switzerland; 13—Coast of southeastern France and adjacent Italy; 14—Juan Fernandez; 15—Gibraltar; 16—Tibet; 17—Alaska; 18—Chile; 19—South Pacific; 20—North coast of South America; 21—Moluccas; 22—Cuba; 23—Hawaii; 24—Holland; 25—Belgium; 26—Part of Antarctica.

G 63. SOME QUESTIONS ON THE OCEANS

1—Atlantic; 2—Atlantic, Pacific, Indian; 3—Atlantic; 4—Pacific; 5—Indian; 6—Pacific; 7—Atlantic; 8—Pacific; 9—Antarctic; 10—Pacific; 11—Antarctic; 12—Arctic; 13—Atlantic; 14—Atlantic; 15—Atlantic; 16—Pacific; 17—Atlantic; 18—Atlantic; 19—Pacific; 20—Pacific; 21—Atlantic; 22—Arctic; 23—Pacific; 24—Pacific; 25—Antarctic.

G 64. INLAND WATERS AND COASTAL FEATURES OF ASIA

1—Caspian Sea; 2—Bering Sea; 3—Black Sea; 4—Bosporus; 5—Sea of Japan; 6—Yellow Sea; 7—Sea of Marmara; 8—East China Sea; 9—Dardanelles; 10—South China Sea; 11—Mediterranean Sea; 12—Strait of Malacca; 13—Red Sea; 14—Bay of Bengal; 15—Strait of Babel Mandeb; 16—Arabian Sea; 17—Persian Gulf; 18—Gulf of Aden; 19—Gulf of Oman; 20—Strait of Hormuz; 21—Inland Sea; 22—Hainan; 23—Ceylon; 24—Honshu; 25—Taiwan; 26—Hokkaido; 27—Hong Kong; 28—Kyushu; 29—Sakhalin; 30—Malay; 31—Shantung; 32—Chosen; 33—Asia Minor; 34—India; 35—Arabia; 36—Ganges; 37—Indus; 38—Tigris; 39—Euphrates; 40—Hwang; 41—Yangtze; 42—Amur; 43—Lena; 44—Yenisei; 45—Ob; 46—Aral Sea; 47—Lake Baikal.

Visual and Other Aids

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FILMS

The Office of War Information, Bureau of Motion Pictures, Washington, D.C., has released several additional government-produced motion pictures. These films can be obtained from all film libraries. The only cost is that of transportation. The following films are included in these recent releases:

The World at War is a 16 mm. sound film; forty-five minutes running time. This film depicts the background of the present conflict from the invasion of Manchuria to the bombing of Pearl Harbor.

Dover is a 16 mm. sound film; ten minutes running length. This film portrays the preparation of Britain's channel coast front for the possible allied invasion of Europe.

A Thousand Days is a 16 mm. sound film; twenty minutes running time. This film summarizes the transformations which have taken place in Canada as a result of the war during the period from 1939 to 1942.

Japanese Relocation is a 16 mm. sound film; running time ten minutes. Depicted in this film are the activities of the War Relocation Authority and the

United States Army in achieving the mass migration of more than 100,000 Japanese from the Pacific coastal region to the inland settlements in Arizona, Colorado, Utah, and Wyoming.

If these films cannot be obtained from your local distributor, write to the Bureau of Motion Pictures, Office of War Information, Washington, D.C., for a list of the 175 distributors.

Bell and Howell Company, 1801 Larchmont Avenue, Chicago, Illinois, has released two films whose locale is the African continent. Both films are made by Count Byron de Prorok the noted archaeologist, who is now engaged by the War Department in instructing American soldiers on the conditions which they will probably encounter in the African theater of war. The films are:

Ancient Trails of North Africa is a one-reel, 16 mm. sound film. This film depicts the work of the archaeologist in his attempt to reconstruct the history of the civilizations of ancient man in this region. The film treats of the civilizations developed in Africa by the Romans, Carthageans, Berbers, and pre-historic man.

Warriors of the Sahara is a one-reel, 16 mm.

sound film. This film recounts the activities of the archaeologist's expedition which disclosed the remains of the fabled Tinquan and shows the life of the Tuaregs.

Attention of social studies teachers, interested in presenting phases of the race question to their students, is called to *All American News*. This is a weekly newsreel which is available to all theaters which wish to book it. Each issue of this newsreel records the news of Negroes throughout America and includes a "March of Freedom Section" which presents the activities of Negro men and women in the armed services both at home and abroad. Camera-men cover Army, Navy, Marine and Coast Guard camps where Negroes are training as well as the WAACs, Red Cross, and other activities. Most of the issues also include an interview with some outstanding Negro leader.

Land of Liberty, a 16 mm. sound film, is now available from the Y.M.C.A. Motion Picture Bureau, 347 Madison Avenue, New York City. The film consists of eight reels. It can be rented for \$7.50. This film, which is the result of the cooperative work of the entire motion picture industry, portrays the growth of American democracy over the past century and a half. The historical sequences included in the film are taken from outstanding Hollywood productions and over 100 top ranking Hollywood stars appear in the role of historic characters. The roles of Washington, Franklin, Jefferson and Madison, Hamilton and others, are depicted in the opening sequence which portrays the founding of the Republic. Lincoln's part in preserving the union is portrayed as well as the winning of the West.

West Point, Symbol of our Army is a one-reel, 16 mm. sound film. This film, made and released by Castle Films, Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City, was produced with the full cooperation of the authorities of the Academy. In the film we see the cadets at work in machine shops, laboratories, classrooms, and in the field.

Walter O. Gohlin, Inc., 25 West 45th Street, New York City, have released the following films for school distribution. *Tuskegee Institute and Christophe's Citadel*, a one-reel sound film. Richard B. Harrison is the narrator in this film which tells the history of the Institute, beginning with its founding by Booker T. Washington in 1881. Many of the school's forty-one trades and professions are depicted in this film. The Tuskegee choir, famous for its spirituals, sings throughout the film. The second part of the film shows the Palace of the Emperor of Haiti. The film sells for \$27.00 or can be rented for \$1.50.

Manhattan Waterfront is a one-reel sound film. This film depicts typical activities on the New York City waterfront. Large ocean liners, as well as large and small cargo vessels are shown bringing produce from all parts of the world. This film sells for \$27.00 or can be rented for \$1.50.

Men of Ships is a one-reel sound film. The loading and unloading of ships on the Manhattan waterfront is shown. The life of retired seamen is shown at Snug Harbor, a home for retired sailors. This film sells for \$27.00 or can be rented for \$1.50.

The Disinherited is a one-reel sound film. This film shows the crowded unsanitary conditions in which most children of the slums have to live and play. In contrast is shown the health and recreation centers which The Children's Aid Society has created in the middle of the slums. The problems of Harlem are presented with great force along with a general picture of the work yet to be done. This film can be rented for a service charge of \$1.00.

Recovery Road is a one-reel sound film. This film depicts the services rendered by The Children's Aid Society to the convalescent children of underprivileged families. The commentary is furnished by Raymond Gram Swing. This film shows the healthy life led by the children at the three country homes of the society in comparison with their usual existence in the tenement districts. This film can be rented for a service charge of \$1.00.

RADIO

The Evaluation of School Broadcasts, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, has released the following publications of interest to teachers of the social studies.

Adolescent Personality and Radio by Howard Rowland. This publication contains some exploratory case studies on the junior high school level. Price 25 cents. *Teaching Radio Program Discrimination* by Irving Robbins, Bulletin 56, price 10 cents. This publication presents the practices and experience of seven teachers, grades one to eleven, in teaching radio program discrimination. These publications can be obtained by writing to Radio Division, College of Education, The Ohio State University.

A radio script suitable for use in publicizing the High School Victory Corps is in the December issue of the quarterly magazine, *Secondary Education*. Copies of this issue which contain the script and a lesson plan can be obtained from the magazine's publication office at Greenwich, Connecticut, for 35 cents.

News and Comment

MORRIS WOLF

Head, Social Studies Department, Girard College, Philadelphia

FROM NEIGHBORHOOD TO WORLDHOOD

Antagonisms between peoples who differ physically or culturally are as old as man. They now threaten the very existence of mankind. Military technology is not alone at the bottom of this threat. The sweep of the military machine is so wide because of air power and other communications. By air, no people are even two whole days distant from any other people on earth. In our tiny world, men will have to use their technology along the road to brotherhood or their traditional antipathies will use it to drive them down the path of mutual annihilation. This state of affairs has moved upon us so fast, on the wings of the airplane and the airwave, that most of us still are blind to it; for we see the world with the eyes of a dead generation. We even ignore those who warn us.

Such a warning was uttered in *The Journal of Educational Sociology* for February. Called "United We'll Stand," it impresses upon us the need for a new, all-encompassing philosophy of intercultural relations suited to one worldhood. Sponsor of this issue is the National Conference of Christians and Jews. Louis Adamic, Horace M. Kallen, William H. Kilpatrick, Everett R. Clinchy, Stewart G. Cole, George N. Shuster, and Langston Hughes joined their voices to those of a dozen other distinguished men and women who appeal to us all to take advantage of the opportunity before us to serve the cause of human welfare. They see human society as a single coat of many fabrics and colors. Each people contributes its own piece, precious because uniquely different from all others. Yet there are those who would make like their own the colors and fabrics of others, or would derogate them or would use them for their own ends. Thus fears, insecurity, and hatreds spread and wars threaten.

Teachers are a spear point of society to prick the hide of prejudice and provincialism that enwraps even the young. In these articles teachers will find their insight and grasp of a pressing world problem sharpened.

FOUNDATIONS OF A POSTWAR WORLD

In *The Saturday Review of Literature* for March 20, on pages 8 and 14, are listed 150 books and pamphlets dealing with the postwar world. Seemingly nothing of importance has been omitted. Most of the references are recent, only a few being more than two years old.

The entire issue is on the subject of "Foundations of a Post-War World." Its editor is the eminent Englishman, Sir Norman Angell. He lived and worked in our West in the 1890's and has been no stranger to our shores since. Cowpuncher, prospector, farmhand, reporter, editor, author, and member of Parliament, Sir Norman is able to interpret, from the vantage point of wide experience, the problem we face. This he does in the leading article, entitled "Shall We Writers Fail Again?"

No other age ever had such widespread schooling or produced and read such "mountains of printed matter." If "literature is the interpretation of experience," why then are we in such disagreement about our postwar problems? Sir Norman reminds us that the trained physicians of a few generations ago fought the microbial theory which even the ignorant today accept unquestioningly. Our political doctors should "drop differences which are largely factional, and concentrate upon clarifying for the public the few political truths almost as much agreed upon today as is the microbial theory in medicine."

What are these truths upon which the warring doctors of political science can agree? They do agree upon the fact of the defensive interdependence of nations in the modern world. Even the United States has had to defend itself by fighting in and for Africa, China, the Pacific, etc. They agree upon the fact that no nation can defend itself any more by its own power. The United States, strongest of all nations, did not dare wait to face alone the totalitarian victors in this war, in the event that Britain and Russia fell. They agree that complete national sovereignty is a thing of the past. International anarchy now means global wars capable of wiping out civilization. Why talk of isolationism?

Yet the people are confused, and demagogues take advantage of them for their own special purposes. There are at least five causes for the public confusion. These the writers and publicists can dispel. First, there is "gross misinterpretation of the relation of political power to economic welfare." Britain, for example, exercises political power in the British Empire, but she does not own it. Other nations have access to the physical resources within her dominions. Few indeed are the nations who refuse to share their resources with others. Nations are more likely to defend themselves because they think their national survival is threatened than they are to fight another over a rival economic interest.

Second, the experts have spent too much time disagreeing about "the precise form of the organization of international action against aggression, on constitutions." If they would clarify the underlying principles and build in the public the determination to provide collective security, the particular form to give it will be found.

Third, writers are too much preoccupied with finding "the right economic organization of the world." A detailed blueprint beforehand is not necessary. The public need not now be distracted by arguments about the merits of socialism, capitalism, or any other -ism. At present, capitalism and socialism are partners in the war! The primary need is not to find a Utopian plan of economy but to assure international security for all, whatever the national economy of each may be.

Fourth, we are still too confused about the "function and nature of force in society." We face a condition, and theories of non-violence will not take care of it. Finally, we are led astray when we trace our evils to the doors of such small groups as munitions makers or international bankers. They are but the scapegoats of confused minds.

The Monroe Doctrine was an application of the principle that the defense of other nations is our best defense. The United States did not wait for the Latin American states formally to accept that doctrine. The British Commonwealth of Nations, whose members have political and economic independence, is another example of collective defense. Both the United States and Great Britain have shown that sense of interdependence which the whole world now needs. Given that sense, the means for implementing global security will be found. In both of these examples economic considerations were not paramount to political security. They followed after it. Was that not true also, in 1789, within the union of states, the United States?

In the March 27 issue of *The Saturday Review of Literature*, Sir Norman's article was discussed by such distinguished thinkers as James Truslow Adams, John Chamberlain, Max Lerner, and Allan Nevins.

THE POSTWAR PLACE OF AMERICA

Nathaniel Peffer, authority on international affairs, analyzed "America's Place in the Post-War World," in the March number of *Political Science Quarterly*. The place the United States chooses to occupy will fix to a great extent her role in the postwar world. Many persons insist "that America [is] morally and intellectually committed to joining a world system with jurisdiction overriding national sovereignty." Does the mass of Americans think that way, too?

Five courses are open to us. We could undertake to establish a Pax Americana. But it would have to

be maintained by force. Our happy geographic isolation did not sharpen our political acumen. Europeans, reared in bitterly competitive diplomacies, do not respect us in that field. They say that politically Americans are children. Our isolation, at the same time, has fostered the pharisaic attitude that we are not as other men. Other people therefore do not like us. These two facts make it unlikely that we could play the role of self-appointed leader in world affairs on any basis other than force. The common talk that this is the "American Century" implants the seeds of such imperialism, although it is counter to our American tradition.

The second course that we could pursue is that of withdrawing from world affairs, as we did in 1919. Would not this course lead to a third world war, as it led to the second? For European nations will fight; and our own interests inevitably will involve us in their quarrel. We simply cannot remain indifferent to the outcome of great wars nowadays.

We might, in the third place, attempt to be fully isolated, to seclude ourselves from the world as Japan once did. Could our economy stand it? Would our people do it? Will the airplane permit it?

Two other courses remain. America can participate in an international organization designed to control the acts of nations, or she can pursue the traditional policy of power politics. Voices now are raised on all sides to urge us to pursue the former course. The conclusion seems inescapable that only some kind of international organization possessing jurisdiction over national actions is capable of solving the problem of war.

Peace and traditional national sovereignty cannot co-exist. Balance of power, treaties, diplomacy, and other devices used by sovereign nations serve only to postpone war, not to assure peace. The only valid lesson of history since Napoleon is that peace requires that "the acts of . . . nations must be submitted to review by an organism in which all are an integral part, and which is endowed with power to enforce judgments as decisions at municipal law are enforced." There is no other way open in our times to end war and preserve peace.

Will America meet the requirements of an international organization? It might mean that final decision on such time-honored American policies as the tariff, immigration, and the Monroe Doctrine would not rest entirely with us. Do we Americans recognize such implications? If it be our will, the way will be found to work out an acceptable international organization. The League of Nations failed primarily because such will was lacking among the nations. It did not fail primarily because of defective machinery. Good faith is the prerequisite of any international organization.

If this course is too much for us, only one other is left: to build a great military establishment and seek alliances with powerful nations of like interests. But would such power politics assure peace? Has peace ever been assured by alliances and counter-alliances?

Of all the courses which we might follow, adherence to an international organization holds the best promise for global peace, security, and well-being.

TREND IN WORLD ECONOMY

In *The B.C. Teacher* for February, journal of the British Columbia Teachers' Federation, Mr. Frank Wilson made some interesting observations about "Trade in the Post-War World." Peace conferences, he said, have commonly ignored the forces of their own day and made treaties suited to an earlier time. The Congress of Vienna largely ignored the national feeling of its day and restored the old royal families whose day was done. The Congress of Versailles, a century later, repaired that damage by recognizing national aspirations and self-determination. But its action blocked the lines of trade of modern economy by encouraging the erection of tariff walls and other national barriers. It was no longer true that trade flourished through the interchange of products between a few industrial nations and the agricultural nations. Instead, many nations were trying to force their unwanted goods upon the others.

Shall we recognize in time that the international trading economy already is becoming of minor importance, in comparison with what it was a generation or two ago? Our synthetics, plastics, and other discoveries and inventions make each nation much less dependent upon others for fuels, fabrics, fertilizers, and other necessities. Even industrial nations, like Britain, are supplying a large part of their food, now; and scientific agriculture is young. International trade will continue, of course, for such widely needed products as coffee, fruits, tea, cotton, tobacco, spices, nickel, champagne, and tungsten. But such trade will no longer be at the center of the economic system. At the center now, for each nation or regional economic unit of nations, must be the provision of full employment and prosperity in its own industry and agriculture.

Economically, there will be greater self-sufficiency in each nation or region. Will the peace conferees recognize this fact? What are the implications of this shift in world economy?

POSTWAR TRADE AGREEMENTS

The leading article in the March *Atlantic Monthly* was from the pen of Under Secretary of State Welles. He holds that "Trade Agreements in a New World"

will be indispensable. Widespread devastation, wrought by the war, will require them. Assurance of permanent peace will demand them. The Atlantic Charter promises them. How else can we implement freedom from fear and want?

Such agreements will make it necessary for us to revise our tariff structure. We shall have to allow other nations, whose resources make it most advantageous, to supply us with certain products, while we in turn concentrate on those for which we are best suited. That has been our practice within our own nation, where the South has supplied all with cotton while California and Florida have supplied all with citrus fruits. Mr. Welles' comment on economic barriers is striking:

The economic conduct of mankind is very puzzling. With one hand we expend enormous energies, intelligence, and capital improving transportation, to make it easy and inexpensive to move goods, and with the other we build tariff barriers to slow the movement. Why did we build the ships and dredge the harbors and lay out the railroads and the highways and the airports in the first place? If we really think it mutually beneficial for New York and California to exchange the products of their labor, why do we doubt it as to California and England?

Mr. Wells, of course, has no thought of complete free trade "in the measurable future." What he proposes, and what an increasing number of United Nations agree to:

is agreed action . . . open to participation by all other countries of like mind, directed to the expansion, by appropriate international and domestic measures, of production, employment, and the exchange and consumption of goods, which are the material foundations of the liberty and welfare of all peoples; to the elimination of all forms of discriminatory treatment in international commerce, and to the reduction of tariffs and other trade barriers; and in general, to the attainment of all the economic objectives set forth in the Atlantic Charter.

It may be that public opinion will lag behind the dictates of our modern circumstances. The public may think of foreign trade, tomorrow, with the mind of yesteryear. If so, Congress will mirror it. Here the headwind of public opposition may prove ruinous. An enlightened, forward-thinking public opinion is needed. This article, a contribution to public education, is within the grasp of older youth.

POSTWAR IMMIGRATION

Important people and organizations are saying that this country must lower or remove the bars to

immigration. Such action is required by the principle of freedom which we proclaim to be the birthright of all people everywhere. Robert Moses, well known for his many years of service to his city and state of New York, took issue with this proposal, in the March number of *The Reader's Digest*.

Postwar immigration, in his opinion, will be a ticklish matter. But, in planning "What to Do About Postwar Immigration," he believes the sanest approach is a realistic and not an idealistic one. For, in the face of probable industrial dislocations and unemployment, when the war is over, the American people will not sanction unlimited immigration. Because of the principle of freedom for which we fight, we must not close the door to immigrants more tightly. The sane procedure would be to leave our quota law just as it is.

Mr. Moses gave a résumé of our immigration history. He drew attention both to the great contributions which immigrants have made to our nation and to the national headaches they have caused when they came in such tremendous numbers after 1900. He pointed out that our quota system is one of the most liberal immigration laws to be found anywhere. Since it went into effect in 1929 few nations have filled their quotas. On the whole, therefore, it seems best not to disturb the quota law, although adjustments in it may be desirable after the war.

Mr. Moses' article serves admirably to make young people aware of a problem that is and will still be with us in the years ahead.

POSTWAR EMPLOYMENT PROBLEM

The report of the National Resources Planning Board in March, among other things, aimed to impress the public with the seriousness of the postwar employment problem. The May issue of *Survey Graphic*, another in the "Calling America Series," is devoted to this problem. Special editor for this issue on "From War to Work" is Stuart Chase.

The magnitude of the problem is made manifest by the story of what the situation is, what is going on, and what we must try to accomplish. Authoritative articles tell of Britain's plans to cope with the same question, of the dangers of another depression, of the parts which government, industry, and labor should play in meeting the problems of relief and rehabilitation and similar social questions. An effort is made to picture the world in 1960. Study of this number will clarify and point up one's thinking about a subject that concerns every citizen.

AMERICAN AND BRITISH SECURITY PLANS

Even before the security report of the National Resources Planning Board reached the floor of Congress it became the subject of public discussion. Pro-

fessor Max Lerner, who thinks it is "better and sounder and goes farther than the English plan," called it a "Charter for a New America," in his article under that title in the March 22 issue of *The New Republic*. But this "President's Job-and-Security Plan" may meet with fiercer opposition in several quarters here than the Beveridge plan will face in England.

While the NRPB report deals with our security problem which existed before the war, exists now, and will be with us after the war, the program it proposes is framed in terms of war and postwar conditions. It is a two-part program: one to provide social security and one to strengthen our economic structure:

The first places a floor under the economic fortunes of the individual and the family, below which they cannot fall. The second forms the scaffolding for further social construction, and aims to give the American people what deeply and traditionally they want far more than charity—a chance at a job, a creative chance to show what each person has in him, a chance to be free from crushing monopolies and from the dark shadow of concentrated economic power which forms a state within a state.

In the report, social security is viewed largely from the standpoint of the soldier and worker who return to peacetime employment, while economic reconstruction is approached from the angle of converting a wartime into a peacetime economy. The report suggests a three-point attack on the social security problem. First, assure every worker a job. If private industry cannot employ him, place for him should be provided in a public works program. Second, assure everyone a continuous income through such familiar social insurance measures as compensation, pensions, etc., for illness and accident, unemployment, old age, death, and the like. Third, provide for all a comprehensive scheme of "public assistance," including medical care and public health, guaranteed educational opportunities to all (in terms of ability and not of income), and employment exchanges and training services. The financial burden would be borne by both federal and state governments, assisted by contributions from employers and the citizens individually. But ultimate responsibility for the entire matter would rest with the national government.

Doubtless, opposition will come from groups like those which, in England, have raised objection to the Beveridge Plan: insurance companies, medical associations, local and clerical authorities and others. Undoubtedly political groups will try to make capital out of opposition. Parts of the press will raise their voices strongly against the report.

Business itself will fight against the economic proposals. For the Board proposes that the govern-

ment be a full partner in the work of transferring the nation from the wartime to a peacetime economy. Business is likely to view with alarm such recommendations as: government supervision of the process of converting industry from war to peace work; government continuance in business through subsidies and loans to small concerns; stimulation of basic industries through some new RFC; government promotion of research for new processes and industries; continuance of priorities, rationing, price and other wartime controls until the transition is completed; protection of labor standards and rights; enforcement of anti-trust laws; and the initiation of a large public-works program, including housing, replanning and rebuilding cities, modernizing transportation, and conserving and developing land, water, power, and other national resources.

Here is a comprehensive plan for the maximum use of our resources, labor, and capital, by private and public enterprise. It raises many problems in detail: How assure private enterprise that government will remain an equal partner and not become boss? How avoid centralization which would stifle creative individual and local initiative and enterprise? But the problems are not insurmountable.

An excellent introduction to our social security problem will be found in *Social Action* for February 15 (Council for Social Action of the Congregational Christian Churches). Marietta Stevenson, Assistant Director of the American Public Welfare Association, described the shortcomings of our Social Security Act and suggested ways for its improvement ("Toward More Social Security"). Introducing her article are a brief analysis and a comparison of our law and the British program, including the Beveridge report ("Allies in Social Planning"). These articles provide the background material for the NRPB report which Professor Lerner discussed in *The New Republic*.

A summary of the facts of the Beveridge plan is presented in the February *Monthly Labor Review*, in a brief article on "Social-Insurance Proposals in Great Britain—Beveridge Report." A quick review of social insurance in Great Britain gives the historical setting for Sir William's report. The principles and objectives underlying the report are described, as well as the plan itself. Included in the outline of the plan is a statement of the classes of population affected by it, the rates of contributions, and the kinds of benefits provided. In describing the benefits, the article lists them, tells who shall receive them and for what length of time. A brief account is given of the way in which it is proposed to administer the plan. Most teachers of classes studying social problems will find in this article all the facts they will want to teach to secondary school pupils.

A longer and more circumstantial account, which will be welcomed by teachers, is presented by Leo

Wolman in the March number of *Political Science Quarterly*. The distinguished economist writes of "The Beveridge Report" with approval. His critical appraisal views the Beveridge plan against the background of the broad problem of social insurance.

NEED FOR GEOGRAPHY

George T. Renner of Columbia University and Alfred H. Meyer of Valparaiso University tell, in the February issue of *Educational Method*, what we should teach in "Geography for Tomorrow's Citizens." They would make geography largely a secondary-school subject. They would make the curriculum geo-centric instead of socio-centric. They appear to be somewhat heated and annoyed in their criticisms of those in high places who, apparently deficient in geographic understanding, have erred in judgment in anticipating and meeting the problems of this war.

Even if we think the authors attribute primarily to geography much that other men with good reason would attribute primarily to social psychology or tradition or technology, it is true that new understanding of geography is required now. Many of the reasons are given by Professors Renner and Meyer.

They suggest that community geography and the rudiments of global geography be taught in the intermediate grades. The serious study of geography, under professionally trained teachers of the subject, should begin in the junior high school. There, functional world regional geography should be taught. In the senior high school, geography—historical, political, economic, social—should be central in the social studies.

Many are now of the opinion that geography should be an important part of the secondary school curriculum. Recent history seems to require it. This article brings the problem to the fore. The conception of geography, essentially ecological, which Renner and Meyer present is a useful one:

This geography is a science of men and areas, a genetic and organic study of how settlement patterns and human-use regions have come about. It teaches that a region, instead of being a mere piece of area or a creation of political demarkation, is in reality a social and functional organism. Moreover, it shows that whenever a man-made product or structure is added to a region, or whenever any part of either the cultural or the natural environment is modified, important economic, social, political, and socio-psychological alterations are produced and the course of resulting history is changed. . . . It involves the centering of educational attention not upon human affairs alone, but upon human affairs and the environing region simultaneously. It demands that our interests be geo-centered rather than merely topical.

A strong warning of the dangers in much of our geographical thinking which disregards human values is made by Lin Yutang in the leading article in the April number of *Asia and the Americas*. He rightly condemns the naturalistic determination of "Geopolitics: The Law of the Jungle."

WHAT IS ARCHAEOLOGY,

Written for youth, in the March number of *Natural History*, "How Science Deciphers Man's Past" is a delightful account of archaeology. The author is the eminent American anthropologist, Clark Wissler. Both eye and mind are attracted by the several dozen beautiful illustrations accompanying his elementary description.

Dr. Wissler tells how archaeology began in Europe and America. He explains why the absence of bronze and iron in early America made her problem differ from Europe's. To give reality to his chart of the four basic principles of archaeology, he describes the ways in which archaeologists actually do their work.

In guiding youth to the possible fields of interest for a career, the study of pre-civilized man should not be overlooked. The anthropologists, ethnologists, archaeologists, and palaeontologists of tomorrow are now in high school.

THE GERMAN RACE

One of the greatest of American anthropologists is Ales Hrdlička, long the Curator of Physical An-

thropology at the United States National Museum. In the March issue of *Scientific Monthly* he reviewed the evidence against the claim that "The German 'Race'" is a distinct race, as the Nazis would have the world believe. From writers ancient, medieval, and modern, including distinguished German authorities, Dr. Hrdlička assembled in his scholarly essay the evidence which proves that the Germans are mixed in blood, mixed with their Neolithic fore-runners and with Slavic, Celtic, and other strains which for centuries have inhabited Europe.

He drew also on the evidences of physical anthropology, quoting cephalic and other measurements proving the fact of racial mixture. Much of his account is historical. It is one which teachers and older students will read with profit.

HISTORY TEACHING

Many teachers have noted the debate about how much American history is being taught in the schools. Edgar B. Wesley discussed the question in an article on "History in the School Curriculum," in the March number of *The Mississippi Valley Historical Review*. Historical information, he concludes after a survey, is used in the schools as much as ever. But courses in history are fewer. The reasons he recounts. The college professor, he argues, is as much responsible as the teacher on lower school levels. His article is a welcome contribution.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by RICHARD H. McFEELY

The George School, George School, Pennsylvania

Plans for World Peace through Six Centuries. By Sylvester John Hemleben. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1943. Pp. xiv, 227. \$2.50.

Professor Hemleben has written a book so compact, so well documented, and so perspicacious that there is really very little the reviewer need do but recommend most heartily his *Plans for World Peace through Six Centuries* both to the numerous classes in problems of world reconstruction and to all arm chair architects of the future throughout the country.

About half the book is devoted to plans before 1800, the rest to those which followed. The history of the League of Nations after the Treaty of Versailles is not considered, but in a dozen or more pages of "Reflections" the failures of both earlier

and later peace organizations are thoughtfully discussed. The necessity of a moral basis for the relations between states as between persons is emphasized. A law of nature "based on the ordinance of God and made known to us through natural Reason" means that "international relations cannot be anarchical according to the nature of things." This moral foundation has not been sufficiently stressed; ethical standards must rule everywhere. An amplification of this suggestion could be wished for—a golden rule for national behavior based on loving ones neighbor as oneself, on the abandonment of envy, and the acceptance of responsibility for the sick and needy, would certainly bulwark any international organization of the future.

Professor Hemleben is, however, chiefly concerned to present a survey of peace plans and a summary of reasons for their failure. His peculiar talent, rare in textbook writers, lies in his capacity for combining the survey of so large a subject with some critical analysis of the many problems it suggests. Whether it be in a brief introduction on the domination of Rome in the classical period and the contrast presented by it to the methods of arbitration developed by the Greek city states, or in the more extended treatment of Crucé, Bellers or Saint-Pierre, he is equally succinct and entertaining. He admirably summarizes the plan of Bentham and the achievements of the second Hague conference. Few schemes are considered without some brief explanation of their relation to their period, though there is perhaps less than might be wished for on Grotius' interest in the Dutch wars of independence. Naturally there is less background for such American planners as Ladd than for Kant and other Europeans; in so small a compass it is difficult to see how much more could have been given.

To teachers and students already familiar with the subject, this book will nevertheless prove useful as well as interesting. Considerable aid is afforded both in the twenty-seven page bibliography and in the extended footnotes in each section where reference is made to articles and books supporting, controverting or extending views therein expressed.

As usual the University of Chicago Press has produced a pleasantly bound and beautifully printed volume.

CAROLINE ROBBINS

Bryn Mawr College
Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania

Teaching Critical Thinking in the Social Studies.
Edited by Howard R. Anderson. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1942. Pp. xii, 175. Paper edition: \$2.00. Cloth edition: \$2.30.

Perhaps, after all, the teaching of critical thinking *per se* is more important than the learning of subject matter; otherwise, as Ortega y Gasset has pointed out in his *Revolt of the Masses* we may educate for dictatorship. If we must teach critical thinking—as we must, to preserve democracy—we need an exposition of methods for teaching the processes of critical thinking itself. In the Thirteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, this need is effectively met, especially for secondary school teachers.

Teaching Critical Thinking in the Social Studies is actually a series of four articles put together as an integrated book. In the first paper, Frederick Marcham, a Cornell history professor and Director

of the Cornell Project in Critical Thinking, performs the basic function of explaining how to think critically. His is a succinct presentation of clear thinking methods—selection and testing of data, organization, definition, and fallacies—in fact the paraphernalia of a survey in logic so lucidly written that skillful readers may cover most of the material by pursuing section titles. My comment here is "a good job." Part Two, by Elmer Ellis, of the University of Missouri, is accurately captioned: "Methods and Materials for Developing Skill in Critical Thinking." He treats successively the definition of problems, and the location, selection, organization, and evaluation of data. This chapter is particularly valuable for its treasure-trove of usable exercises, examples, and tests for each of the methods discussed.

In Part Three, Professor Howard Wilson of Harvard makes critical thinking become flesh and dwell among us. Under his treatment it ceases to be a mysterious technique for attacking large and perhaps esoteric problems such as determining the most desirable candidate in a presidential campaign or analyzing the propaganda menace; rather Wilson makes the practice of thinking critically a living activity which functions daily in rumor-scutching, school politics, organization of clubs, or the elimination of trash on the campus. Few books so abound in homey, serviceable suggestions for teaching.

After employing teaching methods which emphasize critical thinking, the evaluation of results is perforce desirable. Appropriately, the final section deals with the "Evaluation of Critical Thinking" in two respects: (a) success in teaching the art of thinking critically, and (b) the effectiveness of different methods of thinking. Professor Hilda Taba of the University of Chicago has crammed this chapter with tests and classroom experiences, mostly in secondary schools, which should equip any thoughtful instructor in the social studies with the skills necessary for measuring her success in teaching critical thinking.

Considered as a whole, the book is well integrated, clear, persuasive, and practicable; it is direct and simple without frills. Its editor and contributors, assuming the desirability of critical thinking, take no chance of alienating anyone, for capitalism, religion, democracy are not rigidly questioned by the methods of their beloved critical thinking. Implicitly they recognize that critical thinking is usually sanctioned in that circumscribed area where it is not too disturbing, e.g. the countering of enemy propaganda, opposition to agreed evils, and workmanlike reporting, rather than deep probing into basic social and economic problems. So teachers, be cautious; only gradually may we enlarge the use of critical thinking until it is a major characteristic of our culture. Such an

appealing goal should lead teachers at least to seek self-improvement in the art of instructing their students to think well. This book, strengthened by adequate bibliographies, buttressed with abundant footnotes, and enriched with usable illustrations and examples, should be imperative reading for all who teach in the social studies.

GARLAND DOWNUM

Mercer University
Macon, Georgia

School of the Citizen Soldier. Edited by Robert A. Griffin and Ronald M. Shaw. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1942. Pp. xvii, 538. \$2.40.

The developing programs of training in the army campus include some work of academic character in the social studies. There is a general desire to teach the fundamentals of American democracy to the growing army so that its members may have an intelligent idea of what they are fighting for. The character of these courses and the materials made available to the men are of interest to all educators.

This volume is the syllabus and text of a portion of the educational program of the Second Army. It is composed of four parts: Geography and World Trade, The World Crisis, American History and the Constitution, The Armed Forces. The first and third have been drafted by members of the Yale faculty, William T. Fletcher and Ralph H. Gabriel, the second and fourth by the Second Army Board.

The five chapters dealing with geography and trade explain concisely the needs of the various regions, the location of the material necessary to satisfy these needs and the directions of the resulting trade. The rivalries for these materials for the control of access to them are described and some of the elements of geopolitics are explained. The three chapters of the second section give a concise account of world diplomatic events since Versailles and much space is given to the foreign policies of the United States.

In the third and largest section of the book, Professor Gabriel gives a neat little narrative of American history of 190 pages. It places its emphasis necessarily on the growth of democracy, military history and the foreign relations of the United States. The final chapters describe the various branches of the armed forces and the duties of the various officers and men. Similar analyses are made of German and Japanese armament. Two chapters are also devoted to the study of propaganda and its place in war.

The volume so constructed is clearly and effectively written. Its style is compact and those who read it will waste no time in grasping its points. It will prove very useful for civilian defense workers

who want a quick survey of the salient features of total war.

ROY F. NICHOLS

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Goals for America. By Stuart Chase. New York: Twentieth Century Fund, 1942. Pp. viii, 134. \$1.00.

From many sources comes discussion of the kind of world we may have when this war is over. The administrative branch of the government has presented its attitude in a small pamphlet being circulated by the Office of War Information called: *Toward New Horizons*. Among other things it contains Mr. Wallace's "Century of the Common Man" speech and in general expresses the philosophy of international cooperation in an economy of plenty. This is an extremely timely subject. Making our economy work satisfactorily is the most important post-war problem we will have to solve. The pamphlet aims to convince us that an economy of plenty is desirable. The book under consideration in this review contends that the economy of plenty is physically possible.

Mr. Chase's book is a very readable, concise summary of the pre-war results of an economy of scarcity contrasted with an appraisal of what our physical plant can do for us in a material way if we choose to use it for the benefit of all. Those who base their thinking on the old adage that the poor will always be with us would do well to consider carefully Mr. Chase's figures on our great productive possibilities. If there is a national will to a better life, Mr. Chase tells us that it is entirely possible to free ourselves from want. He says we are "crucifying ourselves for no physical reason whatsoever."

It is an exciting and terrifying responsibility which our society will be forced to assume when this war is over. The war is showing us what our productive ingenuity can do when the market is unlimited. To quote from *Goals for America*:

If the only goal of production men is production they can make the plant jump over the moon. Will they have to crawl back into their shells after they have so magnificently demonstrated their ability? Will large sections of the plant be frozen lifeless because the death business is ended and people are now demanding goods for life? This is going to be the greatest challenge the American businessmen have ever faced. It will be up to them to prove that full production and free enterprise can work in harness.

There is little material in this book which isn't available in a number of other places. However, this

is an extremely useful type of duplication. Mr. Chase has taken the essential points from a large amount of material and put them into usable form. It is ground that needs to be covered and recovered until its meaning is widely understood, until the case for intelligent planning begins to take root. For this reason *Goals for America* should be widely read and discussed by high school students. Experience has shown the book to be readable and interesting, but above all it has made many of them feel that there is some hope for better things to come in this world which to them is discouraging and confusing. This is, perhaps, its greatest contribution.

HENRY L. PARRISH

Office of War Information
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Anglo-American Trade Agreement: A Study of British and American Commercial Policies, 1934-1939. By Carl Kreider. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1943. Pp. xv, 270. \$3.50.

The fourth decade of this century will be described in history as a time which witnessed a disastrous retreat by the peace loving nations from the principle of collective security. The abandonment of this concept paved the way for international anarchy and global war. Yet this decade may also be considered by future historians as the period during which the blue prints were drafted for a better system of international relations based upon the principle of reciprocal trade. Certainly any thorough history of the thirties will have to take account of the real and potential implications arising from a series of international commercial agreements during this period.

One of the most outstanding commercial arrangements of the thirties was the trade agreement concluded by the United States and the United Kingdom in 1938. Much information concerning this agreement has been presented in official publications of the United States Tariff Commission and Department of State. However, the most objective analysis of the Anglo-American trade agreement appears in the study by Professor Carl Kreider. His work seeks to analyze the place of the agreement in recent American and British commercial policies. It also attempts to set forth the difficulties that were encountered and the compromises that were reached in the making of this trade arrangement.

The Anglo-American trade agreement represented a tendency on the part of both of its adherents to make some significant changes in their commercial policies. The United States took a definite step away from the extreme protectionism symbolized by the Hawley-Smoot Tariff of 1930, while the United Kingdom decreased some of its tariff duties, which

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had shown a protectionist trend under the imperial system established by the Ottawa Agreements Act of 1932. Professor Kreider shows that these changes probably resulted from several political and economic factors and suggests that more fundamental changes were not made due to divergence of interests and policies within and between the two countries. In general, he considers the agreement as a salutary development, despite the short period of its operation caused by the outbreak of war in September, 1939. It reaffirmed the intention of both countries to maintain the principle of equality of treatment for foreigners. Moreover, it set a precedent and gave a pattern on which a better system of international trading relations may be built in the post-war world.

Dr. Kreider's primary interest lies in the field of economics and his book based upon a doctoral dissertation contains much material which is of interest only to advanced students of international economics. However, his work has worth for general readers as an objective evaluation of some recent policies of the world's two greatest commercial nations.

HAROLD T. PINKETT

The National Archives
Washington, D.C.

The Modern Government in Action. By Ernest S. Griffith. New York: Columbia University Press, 1942. Pp. vi, 91. Price, \$1.00.

This small volume is compiled from a series of lectures recently delivered at Swarthmore College. Its purpose is to point to the need for a reevaluation of the function and organization of government in an increasingly technological society. The author takes as his first premise the fact that, although we have accepted major changes in the field of economics, we have not been sufficiently aware that these were bound to produce major changes in other areas of our culture. Of these areas, government is one of the most important. Therefore, we have clung to the theory formulated by Locke and Montesquieu and readily advanced by the founding fathers that government is necessarily organized into separate departments—legislative, executive, and judicial—and functions within these separate spheres. These divisions were originally conceived as a means of securing the greatest possible amount of freedom to individuals and groups within a particular society.

In a most convincing fashion, the author further proceeds to show that in a technological civilization where all the parts of society are so highly interdependent, these divisions of government no longer operate to safeguard individual liberties and welfare. He traces the breakdown of the legislative branch of government in other countries as well as our own to the point where it has become the chief critic or board of review rather than the leader in legislation. Likewise, the judiciary is becoming an organ merely to arbitrate between conflicting demands for power on the part of various economic groups. The cause for the decline in leadership on the part of each of these branches of government lies in the complexity of the economic issues with which they are called upon to deal. There is a crying need for technical experts in the field of government, for men who thoroughly understand the problems of the particular groups which legislation would affect. For these we have failed to provide. Our system of geographical representation is no longer adequate in an age when no one person can fully understand the background and problems of all the various economic groups. Because we have failed to pay attention to the need for expert knowledge in government we have become overburdened with a multiplicity of special bureaus and planning boards whose relationship to each other and to the established branches of government, it is sometimes difficult to determine. What is the answer to this chaos?

The author believes that it lies in a program of conscious, purposeful planning on a national scale to meet the needs of a changed society. As he points out, "the actual choice lies, not between a free econ-

omy and a planned economy, but between uncoordinated controls by unintegrated groups and genuine planning in an integrated society." He points to the experiment with national planning in Russia and in Germany and in both instances suggests that its success might have been completely adequate had it been motivated by something other than the materialistic philosophy prevailing in both countries. Sweden is cited as the most outstanding example of a country where national planning has operated to increase individual welfare. All the arguments that are commonly advanced against planning—loss of freedom, of liberty, of democracy, etc.—are politely but surely knocked down. The real aim of any state, it is contended, is to produce a society of people who can work together for the common good rather than for individual advancement. There was a time when we could afford to stress freedom as of paramount importance. An age is now upon us which "demands the primacy of duty, cooperation, sacrifice."

This is a timely document by an author who is well-qualified for his task. Mr. Griffith is well-known as the Director of the Legislative Reference Service of the Library of Congress and as the author of several books on municipal government. His work will be of unusual value to the teacher who wishes to interpret present governmental trends to the high school or college student.

KATHERINE SMEDLEY

The George School
George School, Pennsylvania

The Impact of Federal Taxes. By Roswell Magill. New York: Columbia University Press, 1943. Pp. ix, 218. \$3.00.

This book is basically a legal treatise describing the social effect upon the nation of the passage and administration of income, gift, death and excess profit taxes by the federal government. It is not written in a manner to which the lawyer is accustomed, nor as an essay describing the author's mental reasoning or views on the subject, but from practical, personal observation and in common language intelligible to the layman who may be but little conversant with the difficulties necessary to be harmonized. Perhaps it may be best described as a critical sociological study of the practical working of our federal tax system or its workability in its moral and social aspects and presupposes elemental knowledge of various branches of social science.

In history, the various acts considered are outlined showing a tendency toward simplification and stabilization with constant revision and corresponding development of administration and judicial decisions. In economics, a statement of the theory of taxation in the interest of the taxpayer is followed by an

explanation of the theory of the subject as applied by Congress and the courts to secure a maximum of return for the government. In sociology, the result of taxation of various groups and the effect of certain clauses on the individual, the family, the community, the town, and classes of workmen, merchants, professional groups and corporations of varying sizes are shown and the question raised of the propriety of using a tax system to effect social or economic reforms.

In philosophy, the differences between the various schools of thought relating to taxation, ability to pay, tax policies, and other questions are described. In ethics, the inequitable working of certain provisions in the tax acts, the wrong of double taxation, the methods of avoidance of taxes, the plugging of loopholes, and ending of special privileges are considered. In psychology, changes in the form and contents of the statutes due to changes in thought or ideas, and the advisability of inserting new or omitting old clauses are discussed.

The chapter on administration outlines the Treasury regulations, rulings, interpretations, procedure, method and cost of collecting the different taxes, suggests changes in the system of administrative law as developed by the Treasury Department, examines cases appealed to the courts, describes the court of review, mentions the technical difficulties involved, and calls attention to the reforms needed. In government, the Congressional approval of the subject is shown in the description of the work of committees, their organization and their hearings. In legislation, the policy-forming duty of Congress is described, the desirability of its consideration from the long range standpoint of the question, its ingenuity in finding additional sources of taxation to tap, its ignoring of the fundamental economic basis of taxation, its removal of hardships, its increase in the yield and lowering of exemptions from taxation, and its difficulties in harmonizing various views to get the maximum amount needed to support the government and prevent the issuance of bonds or adopt a system of forced loans are shown.

In law, the analysis of the different acts, the acceptance of the correctness of the policy-forming done by Congress, the analysis and examination of several judicial viewpoints and decisions, constitutionality of acts, the uncertainty caused in business by such decisions, are constantly brought to the reader's attention. In accounting, the cost of computing the tax, the examination of books kept by the taxpayers and their burden upon the community are discussed. And statistics appear in many cases where advisable or desired.

These various matters are not treated separately but are intertwined in a most readable and interesting

manner describing a subject that remains to most of us intricate and mysterious, showing the author to be well fitted to prepare the book he has written.

In addition to the general topics already mentioned the effect of the taxes on many special topics are separately considered and analyzed, such as joint and separate returns, holding companies, trusts, what is income, community holdings, effects of the depression, joint tenancies, risks and insurance, charitable gifts, surtax, bonds and stock capitalization, corporation mergers, consolidations, business reorganization, public utility organization, credit and many others.

The book is hardly one to be used in the classroom in any of the subjects mentioned in this review but is one that will be welcomed as a reference book in all of them especially by the advanced student of taxation questions, administrative law, and legal interpretation and sociological effects of taxation.

EDSON L. WHITNEY

National University
Washington, D.C.

Guide for the Study of American Social Problems.

Compiled for the American Social Problems Study Committee. New York: Columbia University Press, 1942. Pp. vii, 181. \$1.00.

The American Social Problems Study Committee and the authors who brought this small book into being are men and women who are recognized authorities in their fields. For example, Henry J. Carman of Columbia University served as chairman of the group, and wrote the Foreword and the chapter on "The Farmer." Margaret Meade, well-known anthropologist and author, wrote the Introduction. Other contributors include: Colston E. Warne, Amherst College and President of Consumers Union; Nora Peore, Chairman, Educational Committee, New York Women's Trade Union League; Mary McLeod Bethune, Director of Negro Affairs of the National Youth Administration, and many other eminent people.

The purpose of the *Guide* is to help individuals, groups, leaders of groups, writers, teachers and others find the materials they need on many of the dominant current problems facing citizens of the United States today. Included are suggestive materials on Education, Housing, Civil Liberties, The Negro, and other such issues. If our country is to solve these problems or work intelligently toward their solution, the thought and discussion of them must be taken from the realm of the emotions and raised to the level on which they will be discussed with knowledge, with facts, and with understanding. Only by so doing can an honest appraisal of these great questions be made and progress made toward clearing them up. In locating the sources of reliable data, and in point-

ing up the issues, this little book serves as an invaluable aid.

Each problem is set forth by a general statement which is designed to stimulate the group studying it to round out and define the terms of the problem. This statement is followed by some general references which serve to give the student an over all view of the problem. These general references are followed by a list of books, pamphlets, and articles which aid in the more detailed analysis of the question at point. In most chapters, pertinent and useful films are mentioned.

By means of this *Guide* discussion groups will be "led" by men and women who are familiar with the field and know the best resources concerning it. It protects the group against a tendency to look at the problem from too narrow a point of view.

At the end of the book a rather comprehensive list of organizations and publishers is given, which is very useful.

Such a book has a vital place in American education today. Not only must America be protected from aggressors from without, but to preserve our way of life we must eliminate the internal, domestic, undemocratic forces and must make democracy work for all. These large social problems root back into individual responsibilities and "reform" must begin within the individual himself. Toward this end, this *Guide* serves a useful purpose.

R. H. McF.

The American Ballot. By Spencer D. Albright. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1942. Pp. 153. \$2.50.

Dr. Albright has presented in this book a timely examination of the free ballot in America. The student and teacher of American government will find this a useful manual of ballot forms and election laws. The text is replete with facts and figures setting forth the variations in ballot forms and features found in the states. A great deal of scholarly research has been compressed in the pages of this volume, research materials that would be hard to secure through the regular channels open to most teachers, especially in the secondary schools.

Dr. Albright describes interestingly the way the Australian ballot was adapted to the needs of American states. He devotes one chapter to a description of voting machines, and a careful weighing of the advantages and disadvantages of their adoption. In the chapter on the "Ballot in Presidential Elections" he makes a strong case for the presidential short ballot wherein the names of presidential electors are left off the ballot and the names of the presidential and vice-presidential candidates are substituted. Two chapters, and among the easiest to read,

are devoted to the primary ballot and recent trends. One trend is the shortening of the general election ballots. Another that is discussed is that independence in voting is being encouraged by increased use of the open primary and non-partisan elections. Types of ballots and ballot forms are presented in helpful ways by means of samples and tables.

This is an excellent book for teachers, and most of it could be read with interest and profit by college students, but much, if not all of it, is too difficult for ready comprehension by junior or senior high school pupils.

R. H. McF.

Liberty and Learning. By Davidson Edison Bunting. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, Pp. xiii, 147. \$2.00.

American teachers everywhere should be grateful to the American Civil Liberties Union, under the leadership of Roger N. Baldwin, for the defense of the civil liberties of teachers. Few teachers, however, know of the extent to which they are indebted to this group for such freedom as they enjoy. The activities of the American Civil Liberties Union in behalf of freedom in education are factually, clearly and sympathetically presented in this book by the author.

The book shows how the Union has worked, along with the American Association of University Professors and the American Federation of Teachers, in defending the freedom of teachers and teaching, particularly since the First World War, which brought forth new problems in the sphere of the Bill of Rights. The Union has not only worked with these organizations for this purpose, but it has gone further in the defense of the freedom of discussion by students on the campus. The story is not one of unmitigated success for the Union has suffered many technical defeats, but the work it has done has made it difficult for administrative authorities who would dismiss a teacher for unpopular views.

This book is very timely for teachers at all levels, but has a very limited use for students.

R. H. McF.

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

America Speaking. By Olga Perschbacher and Dorothy Wilde. New York: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1943. Pp. ix, 469. \$1.60.

The title of this volume is descriptive both of the topics discussed and the authors represented. The selections are divided into three parts. The first "The Pursuit of Happiness" includes some excellent descriptions of family life and American workers. The second "We Hold These Truths" contains a unit on the founding of the nation, one on the Civil

War period and one on our nation's people with some particularly good items about our immigrants. Teachers of American history may wish that this part could have been extended to include selections dealing with our freedoms since the Civil War, and with some of the well-known immigrants such as Charles Steinmetz and Mary Antin. Part Three contains some challenging material under the titles "Faith in Yourself" and "Strengthening Democracy."

The presentation is full of variety including plays, essays, letters, poems, history and fiction. The authors range from the founding father to a young poet killed in the present war. Included are well selected passages from Thoreau, Emerson, Whitman and Melville. On the other hand, there is a selection from that favorite of the junior high school, Emma Bugbee's *Peggy Covers the News* and from Clarence Day's *Life with Father*. The student may become acquainted with the historian Douglas Southall Freeman and modern thinkers such as Fosdick and Sheean, but are also introduced to the lighter touch of the Benets or Elsie Singmaster.

Each selection has a brief introductory paragraph to set the stage. Each is followed by several suggestive questions and a helpful note on the author. The short bibliographies with accompanying notes suggest further reading on the same general topics.

Due to the variety in approach and difficulty, both junior and senior high school teachers may find this book useful. While few of us will have courses in which it can be used in its entirety, it should prove valuable as a stimulating supplement.

ELIZABETH MOHR

Memorial High School
Pelham, New York

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

The United Nations and the Organization of Peace. February 1943. Third Report of the Commission to Study the Organization of Peace, 8 West Fortieth Street, New York City. Pp. 36. Free.

The Third Report accepts as a self-evident fact the need for a world order, for an international structure of nations to assure collective security. What that structure shall be cannot be pre-determined. To work toward it requires the establishment of a preliminary organization, by the United Nations, to coordinate the work of many existing agencies and activities, orienting them toward the goal of a world order. It requires also a public clarification of war aims and postwar purposes, as already forecast in such pronouncements as the Atlantic Charter.

The preliminary organization must immediately arrange for handling the problems of the reconstruction period. Fully half of this report discussed them:

the postwar political order, problems of national governments and war criminals, disarmament, disposition of colonies, relief and rehabilitation, migration and the refugees, social and economic reconstruction, and education.

The fact that the distinguished historian and student of affairs, James T. Shotwell, is chairman of this commission gives assurance that its reports are enlightening, fitted to existing conditions, mindful of the common welfare and wholly in the public interest.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

The Cult of Uncertainty. By I. L. Kandel. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1943. Pp. x, 129. \$1.50.

This is the fifteenth volume of the Kappa Delta Pi lectures. Dr. Kandel, well-known American educator, challenges the philosophy of change which neglects enduring values in an abortive quest for freedom. Stimulating and thought-provoking.

All Our Freedom. Edited by Marian Rhoads. New York: Ginn and Company, 1943. Pp. ix, 181. Illustrated. \$1.00.

A series of inspirational stories about airplanes, submarines, tank-testing, ground fighting, and Commandos in which are told the dangers, hardships, trials, and triumphs of this war's heroes. Vivid, interesting portrayals.

Intercultural Education in American Schools. By William E. Vickery and Stewart G. Cole. New York: Harpers and Brothers, 1943. Pp. xviii, 214. \$2.00.

This book, the first of a series of volumes on the problems of race and culture in American education, should go a long way to meet the needs of teachers who recognize the responsibility of schools for improving the relations of minority racial groups in American communities.

Social Work Year Book: 1943. Edited by Russell H. Kurtz. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1943. Pp. 764. \$3.25.

An extensive, well-written description of organized activities in social work and in related fields. This is the seventh issue of this series to be published since 1929.

Today's American Democracy. By John Lincoln Williams and Palmer Peckham Howard. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1943. Pp. xi, 620. Illustrated. \$1.96.

A textbook in the problems of American democracy in which each problem is traced through its

historical development to show its origin and significance to the people today. It has a good index, the illustrations are appropriate, the teaching aids are good.

Iowa in Times of War. By Jacob A. Smisher. Iowa City, Iowa: The State Historical Society of Iowa, 1943. Pp. 395. \$3.50.

A vivid, readable account of how war has shaped the contour of affairs in the State of Iowa. Helpful bibliographical notes.

History of the English-Speaking Peoples. By R. B. Mowat and Preston Slosson. New York: Oxford University Press, 1943. Pp. ix, 577. \$4.00.

Two distinguished historians, one famous in England and the other in America, have collaborated to produce a history of the English-speaking nations as a whole, and to show the relations of these histories to one another. This is a unique and interesting attempt to ferret out the roots of these nations to show both their similarities and differences.

World Organization. A Symposium of the Institute on World Organization. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1943. Pp. xiv, 426. \$3.00.

This volume presents a comprehensive and critical study of the activities of the League of Nations up to the present crisis. It should be of particular interest to teachers who are interested in the problems of postwar planning.

Interest and Usury. By Bernard W. Dempsey. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1943. Pp. xii, 233. \$3.00.

A critical analysis of the age old economic problem of the nature and function of interest.

War Information and Censorship. By Elmer Davis and Byron Price. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1943. Pp. 79. \$1.00.

The purpose of this publication is to present those public statements of Mr. Davis and Mr. Price which offer a broad picture of the problems, procedures, and objectives of wartime information and censorship.

War and Post-War Social Security. Edited by Wilbur J. Cohen. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1942. Pp. 89. \$1.00.

The outline of an expanded program of social security as visualized by men competent to speak with some authority on this very important problem.

Labor in Latin America. By Ernesto Galarzo. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1943. Pp. 16. 25 cents.

A survey by the Chief, Division of Labor and Social Information, Pan American Union.

Fantastic Interim. By Henry Morton Robinson. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1943. Pp. x, 341. \$3.50.

This is a biography of the American people between Versailles and Pearl Harbor in which the author sets down the incredible history of American manners, morals, and mistakes in a racing tempo buttressed with documentary facts.

Caesars of the Wilderness. By Grace Lee Nute. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1943. Pp. xvi, 386. Illustrated. \$4.00.

An exciting story of exploration, adventure, and international intrigue, setting forth the life histories of two seventeenth century Frenchmen, Medard Chouart, Sieur des Groseilliers, and his brother-in-law, Pierre Esprit Radisson, whose daring explorations in the North American wilderness rivals the discoveries and exploits of any of the other early explorers. This is an authentic, thoroughly documented account of the lives of these two men. Bibliography.

The Growth of American Nationality: 1492-1865. By Fred W. Wellborn. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1943. Pp. xvi, 1042. Illustrated. \$3.50.

A new and interesting attempt to synthesize the "woof of human experience with the warp of chronology and politics" during the period between 1492-1865. Many good maps. A few well-chosen pictures. Extensive bibliography.

New World Horizons: Geography for the Air Age. Edited by Chester H. Lawrence. New York: Silver Burdett Company, 1943. Pp. 94. Illustrated. \$2.00.

A new geography book for the "air age" illustrated by beautiful maps, a number of original and unique cartographic ideas, and excellent pictures.

The Central Five: Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Costa Rica. By Sydney Greenbie. New York: Row, Peterson and Company, 1943. Pp. 84. Illustrated. 56 cents.

Another of the series of monographs of Our Neighbors to the South written by a competent authority. Beautifully illustrated. This, as the others in this Good Neighbor series, should prove helpful to teachers who are seeking authentic, accurate information about the countries in that part of our hemisphere.

The Social Studies

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Continuing The Historical Outlook

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Contents

The Idea of Social Progress	H. G. Schrickel	243
Cures for Intercultural Myopia	Richard H. McFeely	247
Children of the Foreign-Born	Esther F. Berman	252
A Suggestion to Teachers of History	William A. Russ, Jr.	253
Studies and Graduation in Medieval Universities	Ellen Perry Pride	256
The Schools and the War Program	Charles H. Coleman	260
Revised Historical Viewpoints	Ralph B. Guinness	263
Perplexing Vernaculars	J. F. Santee	265
On the Economic Causes of War	Schuyler Hoslett	268
News and Comment	Morris Wolf	269
Book Reviews and Book Notes	Richard H. McFeely	276
Current Publications Received		285

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